The Nation.

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The Week.

"The insurrection in the Philippine Islands has been overcome." Thus opens the resolution on the subject of our possessions in the East which was adopted by the Republican State convention that met in this city last week. "Last week has been one of the bloodiest of the war since the first day's fighting around Manila"—that is, since early in February of last year. Thus opens a half-column dispatch from the Associated Press correspondent in Manila which was published on Monday morning. That this startling statement is not an exaggeration, appears from the summary of the losses, which "authentic reports, mostly official," show to aggregate 378 Filipinos killed, 12 officers and 244 men captured, and enough natives wounded, a great majority of whom will die, so that "probably the week's work finished 1,000 insurgents." The Platt platform also declared that "the establishment of American authority in all the islands is proceeding to the contentment of their inhabitants." But the dispatch from Manila reports that "the insurgents have been active in almost every province of Luzon," and proceeds to give the particulars of many engagements. There seems to be only one way of meeting the difficulty of making the facts in the Philippines agree with the planks in Republican platforms, and that is, to restore the censorship at Manila in all its original rigor, and suppress all knowledge of the facts.

The carpet-baggers have suffered a serious reverse in the agreement of the conferees on the bill for the government of Hawaii that the Governor, judges, and certain other high officials shall be citizens of Hawaii. A number of good places were provided for by this bill, and the Senate proposed to leave them open for our own office-seekers. But the House has stood out for the principle of home rule, and has forced the Senate to accept its contention that citizenship shall be essential to appointment. Hawaii is thus profiting by the unhappy experience of the South after the civil war. We have known what carpet-bag rule means, and the odium of it still survives. Senators shrink from defending it for Hawaii, and even the President sees that it will not do for him to apply it in Porto Rico when there are many offices for which natives are better qualified than Americans.

The President's firm determination to steer clear of this abomination in Porto Rico is necessarily to be taken like his other heroic resolves—subject to alteration while Senators wait. Already it is announced in Washington that Mr. McKinley is unpleasantly surprised at the "pressure" for places in Porto Rico. It is all very well to deprecate carpet-bag government, but what are you going to do when imperious Senators come in with protégés whose carpet-bags are already packed, and who simply must have an office or see the said carpet-bags seized for board bills? Obviously, the purest love of civil-service reform and home rule for our new possessions must give way under such circumstances. As a matter of fact, everybody knows that, as Senator Hoar said in open Senate, the whole Porto Rico bill was conceived and enacted, not in the interest of the islanders, but in that of selfish politicians in the United States. What did the Senate mean by insisting upon the right to "advise and consent" to Porto Rican appointments, except that it intended to grab the patronage? That is what Senators understand by not shrinking from our new "responsibilities." They go now to the War Department and demand, not request, places for their friends in Cuba and Porto Rico. If anybody supposes that the military government in either island is let alone by the politicians, he is greatly mistaken. An army officer in Cuba lately said that the great trouble down there was that everything was being run from Washington with an eye to carrying the Ohio election.

The platform adopted by the Republican party in New York contained a rather premature boast that "civil government and liberal laws" have been provided for Porto Rico. So far is civil government from being provided that a veritable interregnum will follow the application of the law lately passed by Congress. The officers now carrying on the government of Porto Rico are legislated out of office, and in many cases they cannot be replaced before next November. So serious is the emergency that President McKinley has been obliged to send a special message to Congress, begging it to correct its blunders. He explains that there is not time to select proper persons to fill the vacancies, while if temporary appointments of the present officers should be made, great confusion would result. Many of these officers belong to our army, and if they should accept these temporary appointments, they would incur the penalty of losing their commissions. In order to overcome the difficulty, Senator Foraker has introduced and both houses have passed a joint resolution suspending the infliction of this penalty until August 1. This expedient may be the most convenient one available, but it is a bad precedent. The separation of the military from the civil administration is an important feature of our government, and serious evils will follow if the line is disregarded. Certainly there is no occasion to boast of establishing civil government in Porto Rico by means of a law which requires to be immediately amended, especially when the amendment proposed constrains us to suspend an important part of the civil government of our own country.

The discussion in the United States Senate concerning extra compensation for army officers who have been called upon to discharge civil duties in Cuba and Porto Rico, raised some very important questions. The pay of these officers has been fixed with reference to the conditions of service in this country, service ordinarily of an exclusively military character, and not very onerous. When they are assigned to civil duty in our outlying dependencies, the conditions are entirely altered, and there is much reason for increasing the compensation. The duties are heavier, the expenses of living and of maintaining official position are greater, and the climatic conditions are more unfavorable. But it is not to be expected that Congress will long tolerate a purely discretionary system of granting extra allowances. The resolution introduced by Senator Bacon was altogether proper. He asked for a report from the Secretary of War disclosing the names of all officers who have received greater compensation than that fixed by statute, the amount of such compensation, and the grounds for it, and the source from which it was obtained. As the Revised Statutes most explicitly forbid the payment of any compensation for any service or duty whatever, except what is specifically appropriated, it is evident that some action by Congress is called for. The debate in the Senate disclosed the fact that very considerable allowances had been made to a number of army officers, without any pretence of statutory authority. The responsibility for these payments is said to be laid by Secretary Root on the shoulders of ex-Secretary Alger, a circumstance which will incline the public to regard the practice with increased suspicion. As Senator Bacon observed, this "blossoming of the imperial idea" may easily become "the defective and rotten fruit of Imperialism."

The position of the Administration is that these extra-legal payments are not in violation of statute, because they have been made out of the revenue of Cuba. As Gen. Corbin observes, we are in Cu-

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ba under a military government, which knows no law except the behests of the President and the Secretary of War. Our Governor-General occupies the palace formerly used by the Spanish Governor, and the "etiquette of the country" requires that he should live in similar state. The Cubans, it is said, expected it. They were sensitive about the attentions paid to them, and it was necessary not to wound their feelings. As the Spanish Governors maintained their state out of the Cuban revenues, our military authorities followed that precedent. It needs little argument to prove that the practice is an evil one. It means the exploitation of the Cubans for the benefit of their foreign rulers, and that was one of the enormities of the Spanish colonial policy which made our people feel that such misgovernment should be terminated. Instead of terminating it, we have continued it; and while our rule may be now less expensive than that of Spain, there is nothing in our laws to prevent it from absorbing more and more of the Cuban revenues. These revenues not only are applied to the compensation of army officers, but are used, to some extent, in paying restless and dangerous Cubans not to make trouble. The whole system needs to be promptly and thoroughly overhauled. Congress should provide such additional compensation to our army officers as is just, and it should provide it out of our own revenue. We have undertaken to prepare the Cubans for self-government, but our first lessons are of a corrupting tendency. Secretary Root said in his report that the revenues of Cuba have been treated as a trust fund for which the United States is accountable to the people of Cuba. That is the proper view to take, and it follows that the rules applicable to the management of trust funds should be enforced by our Government.

The report of the Committee on Privileges and Elections in the case of Senator Clark of Montana is an overwhelming indictment of the methods by which he obtained his election. No charges of direct bribery are made against him, and none were needed. His agents were guilty of bribery and of attempts to bribe, and Mr. Clark is responsible for their acts, whether he was personally cognizant of them or not. What he must have known of was the existence of a stringent statute passed by the Legislature of Montana in 1895, which statute he grossly violated. Under this law, the amount to be expended by any political committee, or by any candidate for office, and especially a candidate for the office of United States Senator, is limited to $1,000 in any one county, with an additional allowance of $1,000 for specified personal disbursements. With this statute staring him in the face, Mr. Clark gave to a committee organized to promote his election unlimited authority to spend money, which he agreed to furnish, the estimated amount required being at least $35,000 to secure the State convention, and $75,000 for the Legislature. Mr. Clark admitted making payments to the amount of $139,000 through his son to the members of this committee and others, besides some $15,000 to special agents. None of the members of this committee or their assistants made the sworn returns required by law, nor did Mr. Clark himself make any return. In addition to the direct payment of money, there were numbers of suspicious transactions, which furnished cumulative evidence of guilt. A majority of the Senate committee think that an attempt was made to corrupt the Supreme Court by Mr. Clark's agents; but he may be allowed the benefit of a doubt on that point. Perhaps the most practical lesson of this affair is that corrupt-practices acts are occasionally efficacious. They are seldom enforced in this country, at least under the jurisdictions where they are created, but this case shows that they may be invoked in unexpected quarters.

The amendments of the Hepburn Nicaragua Canal bill agreed upon on Friday were apparently intended to do two things. One was to steal Democratic campaign thunder; the other to avoid the appearance of openly flouting the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. In neither respect can the attempt be considered successful. To substitute the vague word "protect" for "fortify," is too transparent a trick. If protect does not mean fortify, then the Democrats will ring the changes on Republican cowardice, and proceed to raise a clamor to high heaven about the need of building a canal (for campaign purposes purely) and fortifying it in the teeth of men and devils. If protect does mean fortify, then the bill is as much in conflict with the treaty as ever. It is in conflict with the treaty anyhow, for in the first article of the Clayton-Bulwer instrument, now solemnly recognized by the President as in full force, we solemnly bound ourselves not to secure such "control" over an Isthmian Canal as the bill, even in its amended form, proposes to obtain. Hence the whole thing must be taken only as legislation of the bouffe order, which is not really intended to be pushed to enactment.

Senator Wellington of Maryland announces that he can no longer support the Republican party. He has been opposed all along to the acquisition of the Philippines, and cannot endorse the policy of the President regarding those islands. He was also opposed to the imposition of a tariff on Porto Rico. Recognizing the attitude of the Government toward our new possessions as the most important issue in our politics, he retires from membership in the Republican National Committee, and, indeed, from all affiliation with the party, so long as it is committed to what he considers the wrong course. The action is of little importance outside Maryland, and even in his own State Mr. Wellington has frittered away most of his former influence by the bitterness of his factional opposition to an element in the Republican party which has opposed him. He recently indulged in an outburst of wrath against ex-Gov. Lowndes, the leader of that element, which showed a pettiness of mind quite unworthy of a United States Senator.

The instant war with Turkey which broke out in the morning newspapers on Wednesday week, was evidently a little premature. It is now clear that President McKinley does not mean to resort to the *last* argument of kings without first trying the effect of some of those earlier in the series. Negotiation, official demand of payment, a time within which settlement must be made, the severance of diplomatic relations, an ultimatum—all these things must come before the big guns are set booming. It is safe to say that our Government will follow the regular course, and not begin by a bombardment of Smyrna. It is needless to go into the merits of the dispute, for the merits are all on one side. Turkey has confessed judgment. To Minister Straus alone the Sultan has made three solemn promises to pay the money now so far overdue, by way of indemnity to American missionaries. But as long as mere promises are accepted, the hard cash will never be forthcoming. Turkish procrastination beats Spanish dilatoriness hollow. The truth is that the Turkish Government has fallen into such a rotten and imbecile condition that it practically pays none of its debts except on compulsion. Its own army has to mutiny to get even its wretched pay. Turkish civil servants—even the Ambassadors in Europe—are left scandalously unpaid. A writer in the London *Standard* drew a pitiful picture, the other day, of the poverty-stricken condition of the families of some highly placed Turkish officials, so bankrupt is the Treasury, and so without initiative or honor the Government.

The amount of the indemnity claimed is but trifling—something less than $100,000, we believe. This sum represents far less than the actual loss incurred in the destruction of mission property; but it has been agreed upon as a satisfactory *amende*. Our Government has, as in duty bound, made the claim its own. If the Sultan had a proper sense of what American missionaries have done for the Turkish Empire, he would pay the damages ten-fold. Some

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of the noblest and ablest men ever sent out by the American Board spent their lives in Turkey. Goodell and Schauffler in Constantinople, and Calhoun and Van Dyck in Syria, made simply enormous contributions to the material and moral as well as religious improvement of the people. The education made available to Turkish subjects in American missionary schools and in Robert College has been the breath of a new life. The Medical College in Beirut, conducted by Americans and turning out its native graduates every year, trained in modern medicine and surgery, has alone been such an incalculable benefit to the subjects of the Sultan that he ought to pay the whole cost of maintaining it out of the public funds.

Gen. Harrison illustrated, in his speeches at the Œcumenical Missionary Conference on Saturday, the delightful liberty, combined with dignity, which an ex-President may enjoy in this country. Indeed, he furnished a new reason for an honorable ambition to hold the Presidency—such privileges does that office confer upon the man who has left it. To command the respect and to have the ear of the people, and then to be absolutely free and untrammelled in what you say to them—one might be willing even to be President as a stepping-stone to this higher office of ex-President. It was, of course, Mr. Harrison's sly poking of fun at dignitaries which set the ripples of laughter running among his hearers. But in the serious part of his address—which so completely snuffed out President McKinley's—he also showed what a thing it is to be an ex-President. He made a really statesmanlike suggestion respecting the repression of the rum traffic among savages. There should be, he said, an international agreement among the great Powers to hedge it about in every way, or to suppress it outright, as had been done in the case of the slave trade. No man can question the obligation resting on Christendom to do something of the kind in the interest of those feeble races which "wither before the hot breath of the white man's vices"; but a President could not possibly say such a thing. We do not think Mr. Harrison himself could have said it when in office or a candidate. Imagine the horror of Mr. McKinley's managers if he should venture such an utterance! The Brewers' Vote would rise before their affrighted vision, and they would at once look around for a candidate who could keep a civil tongue in his head, as respects the liquor trade. Such plain speech is possible only in the case of a man who has won his liberty at the great price of having been President, and having ceased to be a candidate for reëlection.

The strike of the Italian laborers at the Croton dam seems now at an end. The cost of restoring order has been large, and the life of one man has been sacrificed, while the quarrel was intrinsically a paltry matter. As the strikers resorted to violence, there was nothing to do but to employ the force of the State to maintain order, and the action of the civil and military authorities has been prompt and effective. The killing of one of the militia, by whomsoever done, prevented the Italians from getting the sympathy of the public, and even if that deplorable event had not occurred, they would have had little countenance. They are a peculiarly friendless class. They are not citizens, and, having no votes, the politicians take no interest in their grievances. They do not understand our language or our institutions, and are ignorant of our laws. They do not belong to any labor-union, and are regarded with hostility by the members of the unions. They are disliked by laborers of other races, and occupy in every respect a disadvantageous and inferior position. They are not only uneducated, in the ordinary sense, but they are devoid of all training in the elements of self-government. Doubtless they have witnessed the success of strikes by other workmen, and have observed that popular support was given to strikers who prevented "scabs" from taking their places. The lesson has been an evil one, and has borne evil fruits.

Ex-Senator Hill pointed out a weak spot in the Republican record in New York when he spoke at Syracuse on Monday about the tendency of the dominant faction in the party toward centralization of power in the State Government. This tendency has been steadily growing since the revision of the Constitution in 1894, although various changes then made were advocated on the ground that they would promote the principle of home rule. One of the most important of these provisions is that which requires the submission of any special city bill to the authorities of that city (the Mayor in those of the first class, and the Mayor and the legislative body in others) for their judgment, and a repassage of the bill in case it should not be approved. The theory of this new system was that each city ought to have a right to express its opinion regarding such matters, and that the Legislature would be slow to disregard such opinion. In practice, however, as Mr. Hill says, "these provisions have proved utterly useless for any beneficial purpose, it unfortunately having been the uniform policy of the Legislature, from 1894 to the present hour, to overrule the wishes of the local authorities in connection with all such measures."

Lord Roberts's report on the Spion Kop affair, severely censuring Col. Thorneycroft, and reflecting seriously upon both Gen. Warren and Gen. Buller, is, in itself, only a routine matter, a part of the regular duty of the commander-in-chief. The astonishing thing is that it should have been published at the present time by the Government. How it can have anything but the most unhappy effect on the morale of the army it is difficult to see. It is one thing for the authorities to receive information discrediting officers in the field, but quite another to give it to the public while the men are still holding important commands. If there are bitterly quarrelling factions in the English army—if the higher officers are divided between the Wolseley camp and the Roberts camp, and if the Roberts men have now got Lord Lansdowne's ear, and are rubbing salt into the wounds of the Wolseley men by means of this surprising report—why, the strange course pursued may be intelligible, but must be held none the less deplorable. It was years after the Franco-German war before the German military authorities would allow the reports to be published exposing the misconduct of German officers at Gravelotte. Perhaps, however, Lord Roberts will say, as Gen. Grant said of his reference to Butler's being "bottled up" at Bermuda Hundred, that he did not think his condemnatory phrase would "attract attention"—"as this did," Grant innocently added, "very much to the annoyance, no doubt, of Gen. Butler."

The sum of £160,000 is not inconsiderable, and the Mansion-House fund for the relief of the starving people of India has reached that figure. Yet in 1897 a similar fund amounted to £470,000, and there were then on the relief works only 2,800,000 persons, while the number now exceeds 5,000,000. The relative amount of relief, therefore, so far as the English people is concerned, is less than one-fifth what it was in the former famine. Not only do the vast expenses of the South African war exhaust resources that might have been devoted to charity, but the warlike spirit is not favorable to the emotion of pity. An attempt was made in the House of Commons a few days ago to have the British Government use its resources in the relief of the Indian sufferers, but it was defeated by a vote of 155 to 72. The position taken by the Government was that the Indian authorities were able to deal with the problem. This position was supported by the figures concerning the Indian revenue. Had it not been for the famine, there would have been this year a surplus of £6,000,000, and, even as it is, there will be a considerable excess of revenue. Lord George Hamilton, speaking for the Indian Government, admitted that if it found itself unable to find food for all who wanted it, and work for all who came for it, it would be proper to apply to the Treasury for a grant.

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SENATOR HOAR'S SPEECH.

Senator Hoar's speech in the Senate on April 17 was up to the measure of the occasion. It left nothing to be desired in the way of lofty sentiment, courageous expression, or determined purpose to apply the doctrines of American liberty to the people who have fallen into our hands as a consequence of our war with Spain. If he had done nothing else than voice the protest of the American people against the subjugation of the Filipinos, he would have earned great honor, but he has done much more. He has pointed out an alternative course in dealing with those islands which accords with the interests of ourselves and of the islanders, as well as with the principles of free institutions.

True, he had not far to go to find a feasible plan of securing peace with honor in the Philippines. It was only necessary to recur to the promise we made at the beginning of the war for the liberation of Cuba, that we would leave that island in the hands of her own people to work out their own salvation in their own way. No human being has ever produced any reason why the same rule should not be applied to the Philippines as to Cuba—no reason except the mercantile one of possible gain in exploiting their resources. In the forum of morals this is not an avowable reason, yet it has been, up to this time, the governing, if not the avowed, consideration in our treatment of the islands. The money to be made by holding them has been one of the impelling motives for retaining them. It was the same motive that inspired the ruling classes of Great Britain to hold the American colonies in the last century. Senator Hoar exposes it to the scorn and contempt of the ages at the same time that he offers his plan for putting a stop to bloodshed in the Philippines, and securing to the inhabitants thereof the right to work out their own destiny in the same way that other free peoples, including ourselves, have done in the past.

First, says Mr. Hoar, "I would declare now that we will not take these islands to govern them against their will." Nothing could be simpler than that, nothing easier, nothing more in accord with our lifelong republican teachings and all the doctrines, political and religious, that we have learned to hold dear. It would cost nothing to say those words. Notwithstanding all the reasons we have given those people to hate us, we know absolutely that if we should now pronounce such words, every gun would be laid down by the Filipinos. The flow of blood would cease. Our own men could come home—all except a mere police force to maintain order in the larger towns. Nor has the time gone by when such words could be spoken with honor. If it be true, as we are assured from day to day, that the rebellion is subdued and that naught remains but a few scattered guerilla bands, our military prestige is already vindicated. It is rather humiliating to talk of our military prestige in connection with the beggarly forces of Aguinaldo, as they are represented to have been; but if there be such a thing, we may fairly claim that it has been vindicated. We may affirm, too, that any more spilling of blood is unnecessary and wanton. Our pride, if we can call it such, in subduing these poor creatures, burning their huts, and driving them houseless into the swamps and the jungle, ought to be fully gratified without losing any more of our own men or killing any more of theirs.

The remainder of Senator Hoar's plan for making an end of these horrors and securing peace with an honorable fame embraces the policy of helping the Filipinos to form a stable government of their own, of inviting foreign Powers to join in an agreement that their independence shall not be interfered with, and, if necessary, of requiring that foreign Powers shall not so interfere. He would then leave them, in the not distant future, to work out their own salvation as other free peoples have worked out theirs, striking from our legislation the oath of allegiance to us and substituting another of allegiance to their own country.

Nobody can say that Senator Hoar's plan is impracticable. Anybody who says so must begin by tearing out of our own history the brightest page it contains. He must obliterate the sayings of our Revolutionary fathers, trample on our Declaration of Independence, and take George III. for an exemplar and a pattern instead of George Washington. Thus much Senator Hoar makes clear. His speech cannot be ignored by the Imperialists in the Republican party. Although he deprecates the success of the Democratic party, and looks for no help from William J. Bryan, and will not coöperate with them, his words will furnish no end of ammunition to them in the coming campaign. This is unavoidable. If Bryan and his party put themselves on Senator Hoar's platform and espouse his principles, the Republicans cannot complain, unless they avow the doctrine that all Republicans who refuse to trample on the principles of self-government are to be gagged and silenced, and only Democrats allowed to maintain and uphold them. If there be any who think that Senator Hoar ought to hold his peace for the party's sake, let them remember that the party has not yet spoken. Neither President McKinley nor Congress has yet uttered the decisive word. They have been throwing the responsibility backwards and forwards ever since the treaty with Spain was ratified; and the Spooner resolution, which is only a makeshift, and does not pretend to decide our future policy in the Philippines, is still pending in the Senate.

It remains to notice Senator Hoar's strange hesitancy to make a personal application of his burning words in defence of human liberty. His denunciation of Mr. McKinley's policy is vehement; his affection for Mr. McKinley's person seems unbounded. No wary divine was ever more careful to discriminate between sin and sinner. Of the course which the President has followed, and to which he has used every art to commit his party, Senator Hoar declared that it means "the abandonment of the principles upon which our government is founded." The reasoning which the President has publicly employed to justify our asserting sovereignty in the Philippines, Mr. Hoar pronounced "the doctrine of purest ruffianism and tyranny." Rising in crescendo, he affirmed that the President's gloss on the doctrine of the consent of the governed "would have been received with a burst of derisive laughter in hell, and Satan himself would have led the chorus." Yet Mr. McKinley remains, to the Massachusetts Senator, the "great President," who "holds a place in the affection of the people at large which no one of his predecessors ever attained in his lifetime."

This, we can but think, is an example of the American want of high seriousness in politics. It lends point to the charge of foreign critics that Americans are dowered with too fatal a gift of good-nature to keep their political life pure. Our anger in public affairs is truly a *brief* madness. The sun never goes down on our political wrath. A man who could get "mad," and stay mad for a year, over a political crime would be regarded not only as a prodigy, but as a nuisance. Now, whatever the excuse for the good-humored American way of never carrying political differences to the point of hurting anybody's feelings, it certainly represents a great departure from the stern and personal methods of the men who wrought out English liberty. We will not go back to the rude times when heads fell to emphasize condemnation of their owners' politics; but consider, as a typical case, the rupture between Burke and Fox. Fox sat by while Burke was pouring out his lava-flood of indignation at the English defenders of French Jacobinism, and was saying that his soul could no longer enter into their counsels. Fox started up anxiously. "But it does not mean an end of personal friendship?" "It does," flamed Burke; and the intimacy of years fell shattered. There was little of the amenities of life about this, but a good deal of sincerity. Calhoun, in his time, a sincere and lofty nature undoubtedly, refused to maintain personal relations with Seward and the other Republican Senators. "I will say good-morning to them," he said; "I will recognize them as Senators; but I will not familiarly associate with men whom

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I believe to be plotting the ruin of the country." That was ugly; but how frivolous it makes the modern Senator look, wreaking the vocabulary of vituperation upon the political proposals of a colleague, and then going out to have a drink and a good laugh with him over the joke of it all!

We must remember that offensive personalities in politics are the only sure means of establishing responsibility; and responsibility is the breath of life of free governments. Nothing could better please President McKinley than to be called a blind agent of mysterious fate in all this break-up of the republic that has gone on under him. He has not the slightest reason to dread Senator Hoar's thunderbolts as long as they are aimed at McKinleyism, and not at McKinley. We have to get down to personality to find true causes; to fix real responsibility; and to show popular wrath where to strike. If a Senator is serious, and wishes to be taken seriously, he will not be as one that beateth the air about impersonal policy, when he has before him the man who knows his plain duty, and, knowing, dares not do it.

POLITICAL CHAOS IN THE SOUTH.

Three events last week served to call attention to the abnormal condition of politics in the greater part of the South. On Tuesday, April 17, a State election was held in Louisiana which was of the first importance, involving as it did not only the control of the executive and legislative departments of the Government for the next four years, but also the choice of two United States Senators. This was quickly followed by the death of Henry Demas, who had been for more than a quarter of a century the most influential negro politician in the Republican party of Louisiana. At Montgomery on Thursday the Alabama Republicans met in a convention which was a characteristic gathering of the party as it now exists in the Gulf States.

One sure feature of such a convention is a division into factions. No matter how weak the party may be, it is almost certain to split; the division sometimes going so far, as in Mississippi four years ago, that Presidential electoral tickets are run by each faction, when neither could poll as many as 3,000 votes. The convention at Montgomery was "split wide open" before any of the preliminaries were arranged, a representative of the Bingham faction having shot one of the Vaughan side in a quarrel about entrance to the hall in the Statehouse. Great confusion followed, a hundred pistols were drawn, and a brother of the wounded man fired at the latter's assailant as he ran for refuge to the Governor's room. The Governor at once ordered the hall cleared, and refused to allow either faction to meet in the Capitol or to speak on the grounds. Each set looked up a place outside, where rival delegations to the Philadelphia convention were chosen, two of the four from either faction being blacks, and Federal officials figuring on each list. "Each faction," reports the *Sun* correspondent at Montgomery, "declares that the other is a bolter, and each has about the same following in the rank and file."

For thirty years Demas had been a leading actor in scenes like this, in the neighboring State of Louisiana. He was the smartest politician that his race developed after it was given the suffrage, and as unscrupulous as he was clever. He became a member of the Legislature in the reconstruction period, and was conspicuous for his corruption from the first. As the paid agent of the Louisiana State Lottery in the Legislature, he received a stipend of $100 a month from that company for years, going regularly each pay-day to draw his money, besides having two lottery offices given him by the company, which paid him additional sums in commissions on the sale of tickets. He was a Republican member of the State Senate when the Governorship was in dispute between Packard, Republican, and Nicholls, Democrat, after the election of 1876, and was one of the four Republicans who finally abandoned the Packard Legislature and joined the Nicholls body so as to give the latter a quorum, receiving therefor $10,000. After the Democrats had come into power, his chief political resource was running the Republican organization, and dealing out the patronage when there was a Republican President. When the canvass for delegates to the Republican national convention in 1896 opened, he professed to be an ardent supporter of Mr. Reed, took money from the latter's friends to defray the expenses of the campaign, and wrote the Speaker a letter promising his support. Later, he "flopped" to McKinley, and openly boasted that he had "thrown" Reed, and would be rewarded therefor with a good Federal office. McKinley did his best to keep the bargain by appointing him Naval Officer at New Orleans, doing this during the recess of Congress in September, 1897, so that he held the office for some months; but Hanna was unable to secure confirmation of the nomination when it was sent to the Senate the next winter, and the unsavory record of his protégé was exposed.

Such a career as that of Demas and such a gathering as that of the Alabama Republicans show clearly enough why the party which they represent has never made any headway among the whites in that part of the country. Everything connected with its management is calculated to repel decent people. The candid outsider cannot wonder that one State after another has adopted a policy of amending its Constitution so as to secure the practical disfranchisement of the black race, as the first step toward the restoration of normal conditions among the whites.

But the surprising thing about this change, which has already been made in Mississippi, South Carolina, and Louisiana, is that it does not produce the expected results. The election of April 17 was the first in the last-named State under the new Constitution, but although it was of the greatest importance, only a small proportion of the whites took any interest in it. The negro was practically disfranchised in Mississippi ten years ago. The last census showed more than 120,000 white males of the voting age. Yet in the Congressional elections of 1898 only about 27,000 votes were cast in the seven districts, and in the Gubernatorial election of 1899 the total was but little above 48,000.

In the old times, when only whites voted, Mississippi and Louisiana were divided closely between the two parties, the Whigs carrying Mississippi by about 2,500 majority in 1840, while the Democrats secured a margin of about 600 in 1848. Louisiana was recorded for the Democratic nominee in 1844 by about 700 majority, while the Whigs carried it by nearly 3,000 in 1848. One would expect party divisions once more to appear among the descendants of these men now that they can again divide without danger of "negro domination." But there is never any serious opposition to a candidate who secures the regular Democratic nomination; no rival for that nomination runs, although he might do so without any fear of the Republicans. When the Mississippi Constitution was under discussion in the Senate, nine years ago, Mr. Evarts remarked that it provided for "a desiccated suffrage." A leading newspaper of the State, the Vicksburg *Herald*, has more recently characterized the conditions which now prevail as a "surrender to party absolutism" which results in an "oligarchy." Louisiana seems to be tending in the same direction. Nothing so abnormal in election methods was ever before seen in the United States.

THE STEEL AND WIRE EPISODE.

Probably nothing will come of Representative Noonan's resolution that Congress investigate recent incidents in the conduct of the Steel and Wire Company. If there were reason to suppose that the Joliet works were closed simply and solely for the purpose of affecting the stock market and furthering "bear" speculations of the company's officers, then an investigation might lead to something definite. But the formal action of the company's directors on Friday shows that there were other reasons for such a shut-down. The Steel and Wire Company's trade has undoubtedly become congested through the attempt of its managers to maintain

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a factitious range of prices. While almost every other iron product, including all the raw material of the Wire Trust, had declined since the rise of iron prices culminated last November, the price of nails and wire, the finished staples of this Trust, had actually been advanced.

The result of such an undertaking is inevitable. The experiment is merely the familiar "corner," in a more or less aggravated form, and no monopoly is complete enough to sustain it for any length of time. Nobody recognizes the truth of this principle more frankly than the really competent managers of the Trusts. Men who have gone into these undertakings neither as adventurers nor as gamblers, and who are familiar with the fundamental laws of trade, have repeatedly declared that in reasonable prices for its product, and in frequent reductions through economies in production, lies the true field of the modern Trust. Many go further, and assert that the Trust which ignores and violates this principle will only invite its own swift and sure destruction.

The case of the Steel and Wire Company sufficiently illustrates the correctness of this view. By the confession of its own management, the abnormally high prices maintained, wholly through the action of this company, drove off consumers in the nail trade by wholesale. The company waited for them to return through the necessities of trade, and went on manufacturing at full speed; but the consumers learned, as consumers almost invariably learn under such circumstances, that there were other quarters where their needs could be supplied. A different kind of nails, not manufactured by the Steel and Wire Company, was adopted by the former customers of the Trust, and the new article turned out quite as serviceable, or more so, for the builder's purposes.

"Overproduction," or, more correctly, "underconsumption," was the prompt result of the company's blind and unbusinesslike policy. To meet the serious trade congestion which ensued, only two expedients were available—to shut down mills and restrict production, or to cut prices to a reasonable level. The first of these expedients was, from a trade point of view, sure to be futile, since it did not touch the root of the trade embarrassment. It was, however, characteristically adopted by the officers whose previous policy had brought the existing trouble on their trade. Fortunately for the Steel and Wire Company, conservative interests still could demand a hearing. Friday's meeting of the full directors' board, so far from approving Mr. Gates's plan, reversed it instantly, recognized the situation, reduced prices, and ordered the reopening of the mills.

We suspect that this chapter of trade mismanagement is about as much as Congress would learn from an investigation. Whether the arbitrary level of prices for the company's products was or was not continued beyond even rational limits with a view to decoying the public into Steel and Wire shares, would be difficult to prove. Wall Street report—and on such points Wall Street information is often accurate—has insisted that members of the company's management were speculating for the rise some two months since, that they sold out their speculative holdings to outsiders at the high prices of three weeks ago, and that they then "went short" of their own stocks at the moment when the company's chairman gave out an interview announcing, in the most extreme and reckless language, the bad condition of the trade. These reports, which have received almost universal credence, are matters, we think, for the company's shareholders and directors to consider, as they must also consider the gross mismanagement of the company prior to last week's public scandal.

But how useless Mr. Noonan's proposed investigation would be may be judged from its author's grave discussion of the Stock Exchange's delinquencies. He declares his purpose of disclosing "the insufficiency of the rules and regulations of the New York Stock Exchange in relation to the most important part of the financial system—the immediate market for securities." We presume Mr. Noonan would have the Stock Exchange insist, before a bid or offer is permitted on its floor, that the broker certify whether his client is or is not an "insider" in the company whose shares are being traded. To no other than this nonsensical conclusion could the statement point. The truth is, of course, that no Stock Exchange can carry its authority further than to insist that sales and purchases be made in good faith, and with actual deliveries, and to require, as the New York Exchange now does, that every security admitted to its list shall first submit a complete and comprehensive statement of the company's condition, supplemented, more or less frequently, by similar reports.

It is not the Stock Exchange, and not Congress, which can prevent or punish the flagrant wrongdoing which last week's events have brought to light. President Hadley's idea of social ostracism for officers of Trusts who evade their proper responsibilities lacks a good many elements of practicability; but the idea of ostracism, on the part of investors, for the securities of companies thus mismanaged, is altogether feasible. Something of the sort exists already in the case of the "industrials." From time to time, this ostracism is practised even by banks which lend on corporation securities. There are signs in the money market that it is now being practised again in the stocks affected by the recent scandal. For ourselves, we regard this expedient as the most logical as well as most efficient of correctives, where false methods of policy have been practised by a company. Corporation history is full of chapters dealing with the wreck of enterprises intrusted to such leadership. The problem is not at all new in American finance. The analogy which the community has traced at once, between the present 'inside" speculators in industrial shares and stockjobbers in the railway management of a generation ago, may profitably be extended to the companies. Almost without exception, the railway corporations, in which these older wreckers held control, have since passed through the bankruptcy courts as a direct result of the mischievous work of twenty or thirty years ago. The brood of industrial companies of 1898 and 1899 are, in the opinion of experts, far more vulnerable to the strain of trade reaction than were the railway enterprises of 1870 and 1880. Their need of honest and competent management is proportionately greater. It will be prudent, to say the least, for such conservative people as are already involved in the Steel and Wire Company, and in other companies under similar auspices, to look to their own interests before the banking and investing public is forced to extreme measures.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

PHILADELPHIA, April 21, 1900.

The Society has not often had a more successful Meeting than that which has just terminated. Of the unusually large number of papers presented (over fifty in all), several touched upon a domain rarely entered hitherto by members of the Society, that of modern conditions in language and custom in the Far East. Doubtless political events had something to do with this, as such papers centred about the Philippines. Some of the problems which we have to face in these new possessions were discussed in an instructive study by Prof. Haupt, while Prof. Gottheil gave a more particular account of the Mohammedans found in the islands. It is to be hoped that this modern phase of Oriental life will in future call forth more special studies of the same sort; and in furtherance of this idea the Society recommended at this Meeting a separate section for the study of modern Oriental languages and institutions.

Further papers of like character, though not dealing with the Philippines, were those of Dr. Yohannan on the dialects of modern Syria, and a very interesting account of Islam in Morocco, by Dr. Talcott Williams. A pleasant feature was added by two of the members recently returned from missionary work in India, who laid before the Society some practical observations drawn from their experience as Christian teachers; Dr. Abbott of Bombay giving an account of the mission there, and the special requirements of missionary labor, and Rev. Mr. Ewing analyzing the tenets of the various Samâjas in the Punjab.

The gap dividing the Semitic from the Aryan scholars was bridged by a paper by

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one of our new members, Mr. F. R. Blake, who read a study of the rites found both in Babylon and in India, while Dr. Paul Carus, taking a wider course, gave at another session some illustrations of coincidences in Chinese, Indian, and Greek epigrams. Mythology was, on the whole, rather neglected, but besides a short note by Prof. Fay, who sent a new explanation of the Prometheus myth, Prof. Price of Chicago University presented a very valuable analysis of the pantheon found on the Gudean cylinders. A paper by Prof. Jastrow on Babylonian influences in the Pentateuchal code was also of great interest. Such influences, Prof. Jastrow held, appear first in the second form of the code, while the earlier is devoid of them. Another instructive paper on the same general theme of connection was presented by Prof. Barton, who showed that the story of Ahikar contained all the dramatic elements of the parallel story of Daniel.

On the part of the Indologists, there were offered a number of attractive papers. Prof. Lanman gave a new explanation of the name of the now famous birthplace of Buddha, discovered a few years ago in Nepal. Hitherto this name, Lumbini, has been supposed to be a corruption of Sanskrit Rukminî, the beloved mistress of Krishna, who is the human form of Vishnu. Prof. Lanman made the very probable suggestion that it is nothing but a derivative of *lumbî*, and, consequently, Lumbini-vana means merely the "grove of creepers," or a thicket-grove. An entertaining paper by the same writer contributed some fresh stories of talking birds in Hindu literature. Their marvellous power of imitating human speech as recorded by tradition was corroborated on the spot by Dr. Abbott, who happened to be present, and testified to having once had a parrot that could repeat whole stanzas of Sanskrit poetry—which is more than many Oriental scholars can do.

In the section for the comparative study of religions, which, as usual, held a special session on Friday afternoon, Prof. Jackson presented a careful study of the religion of the Achæmenian kings; and Prof. Haupt defended the thesis that the inspection of the intestines in the Jewish ritual had its prototype in Babylonian practice. Dr. Ward, who presided during the Meeting, read at this session a trenchant critique of some of the absurdities advanced as scientific solutions of the Hittite question, and offered as his own contribution to the question a sober analysis of the historical data involved. The Philippine papers already mentioned found their natural place in this session. With these was included on the programme what was sure to be a paper of interest, one by Prof. Toy on a pre-religious stage of society; but in the absence of the writer this had to be "read by title," as was the case also with a paper by Dr. Briggs, and with others by Prof. Prince and by the Rev. Mr. Kohut. A maiden paper by Mr. Allen, read for him by Prof. Lanman, gave a survey of one of the later Hindu rites, as explained by Hemâdri, a writer of the thirteenth century. At the same session, Prof. Hopkins illustrated by extracts from the Hindu epic the earliest phases of Yogin practices and theosophy.

Papers of more special character comprised an essay by Prof. Bloomfield on the relative chronology of the Vedic Hymns, in which a counsel of warning was urged against too hasty induction based on the use of supposedly late words and forms; a paper by Mr. L. H. Gray on the syntax of the Avesta; one on the use of '*anâ* in the Old Testament, by Dr. Grimm; and a suggestive attempt by Mr. Michelson to explain the old Persian genitive in *-hya*, as well as a paper by the same young scholar on the Greek *tenues aspiratæ*. The most important of the purely linguistic papers was perhaps that by Prof. Oertel on the character of Sanskrit *h*, which was shown to be in fact not a sonant, as is usually assumed, but a surd.

It is, however, impossible in a brief space to give even the titles of all the papers presented at the Meeting, still less to discuss fully the studies exhibited in some of the papers already referred to, or again in those of Prof. Torrey on the old Syriac reading of Matthew xiv., 26; of Rev. Mr. Foote, on the sixth chapter of II. Samuel; of Mr. Schuyler, on the Daçarûpa; of Prof. Johnston on a letter from Samas-sum-ukîn to his brother Sardanapalus; of Rev. Mr. Rosenau, on the Hebrew word Torah; or of Dr. Ramsay on the Second Psalm. Deserving mention as an inquiry pursued on somewhat unusual lines was the paper of Mr. Remy, who discussed the influence of Persian literature on German poetry, more particularly on the poet Platen. The indefatigable activity of some of the members resulted in their bringing not one paper apiece, but two or even more—a practice which, owing to the limited time at the disposal of the Society, led to not a few of the secondary papers being read by title.

The Secretary of the Society reported the loss of several well-known members, among them Prof. Monier Williams, who had long been an honorary member, and, from the list of corporate members, Prof. Brinton, Prof. Green, and Prof. Luquiens.

Much to the regret of the Society, its faithful and accomplished editor, Prof. Moore, was obliged to resign on account of other labors. Tradition gives no short terms of service to the Society's officers, and certainly those long in harness do the work well. Prof. Whitney set the example, and Prof. Lanman's long and arduous devotion to the grateful but unremunerative Society is still fresh in memory. Prof. Moore has ably continued this tradition of toil, and the Society was naturally selfish enough to hope for a longer continuance of his good work; but it was seen that a reëlection was impossible, and Prof. Torrey, Prof. Moore's colleague who has just accepted a call to Yale, will assume the editorship on the Semitic side, while Prof. Hopkins takes the Sanskrit care. Before adjourning, the Society voted to meet in joint session with the Philological, Archæological, and other affiliated societies in December next at Philadelphia. The next regular annual meeting will be held in New York in Easter week.

The present Meeting was made the more agreeable by reason of the courtesies extended to the members by the Philadelphia Oriental Club, the Faculty Club, and the University Club. The Oriental Club hospitably tendered the Society a lunch, and the other clubs mentioned kindly opened their doors to all the members of the Society. The beautiful Widener Museum made a most fitting hall and background for an Oriental meeting, and the annual subscription dinner was graced (for the first time) by the presence of several ladies, some of whom were members in their own person, while others were the better halves of members. Altogether, this, the one hundred and eleventh meeting of the Society, was exceptionally pleasant, and even the weather had an Oriental touch which seemed gently appropriate to the occasion. W. H.

A PARLIAMENTARY SECESSION.

FLORENCE, April 4, 1900.

Yesterday's session of the Italian Chamber of Deputies marks the close, for the moment at least, of one of the most remarkable chapters in modern parliamentary history. The papers of the preceding evening had been full of ominous forebodings; for the tension of parties had, for a week previous, been growing greater and greater, and men were prepared for anything. The parties had already gone so far that it was difficult to see how they could go further without actual bloodshed. At the session of yesterday there was an unparalleled attendance, every seat filled, and some Deputies even standing in the corridor. Pending the inauguration of the President-elect, Colombo, Vice-President Palberti presided. The reading of the record of the previous meeting went on, contrary to expectation, without incident. At the close, Deputy Zanardelli, speaking for the party of Constitutional Opposition, protested against the validity of the acts of that meeting, since they were only the reaffirmation of the acts of March 29, against which his party had already entered their protest. He was followed by Deputy Pantano, who made a similar statement on behalf of the Extreme Left. At the close of these statements, which were received in almost entire silence by the other parties, all the members of the Extreme Left, and almost all those of the Constitutional Opposition, left the hall in a body, shouting, according to their various shades of opinion, "Viva la libertà!" "Viva il Rè!" or "Viva la Costituente!" The remaining Deputies, composing the great ministerial Conservative majority, proceeded quietly to the inauguration of the re-elected President, Colombo, and then, by a rising vote, passed the measures for a reform of the House rules which had been reported at a previous meeting, and had driven the Opposition to its last demonstration. Thereupon, with approval of the Government, the Chamber adjourned until May 15.

The whole thing passed off so quietly that the story of it reads like a somewhat dreary anti-climax; but it is precisely in this that the interest of the day consists. So long as the minority remained in the Chamber, even in the attitude of determined obstruction which it has maintained now for several weeks past, there was always hope that a way out of the deadlock might be found by some constitutional means. The withdrawal of a considerable section is equivalent to revolution. In the interval before the reassembling of the Chamber, there is room for hope that the country at large may express itself so clearly on the questions at issue that the Government may see its way to accomplish its declared purposes, without mortally offending any one of the numerous political "fractions."

Meanwhile it is instructive for all students of parliamentary government—and in America that means every citizen—to notice the course of events which have led up to

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this remarkable climax. The present governmental experiment in Italy suffers, as does that in France, from a lack of clear definition of powers. France is trying a republic on a basis of strongly marked monarchical instincts. Italy is trying a monarchy on a people which has, to be sure, a long experience of governmental tyrannies in its more recent past, but which can never forget that its really glorious traditions are all associated with a remoter period of popular governments. Its king is constitutionally defined as king "by the grace of God and the will of the nation"; and this formula, repeated in every public document, is kept constantly before the people as a guarantee of popular liberty. The present King—*galantuomo* in small things as his father was in greater—is consistently faithful to the theory of his state, and suppresses himself as effectually as the most ardent constitutionalist could desire; too effectually, think many who are impatient with the slow working of the constitutional machinery.

The present Ministry, led by a man of military training, Gen. Pelloux, commands a crushing majority in the Chamber of Deputies. This majority has, of course, the President of the Chamber on its side—though it must be admitted that if President Colombo has erred in his conduct of the furious discussions of this session, it has been up to the last moment rather in too great leniency towards the riotous elements than in any over-tenderness towards his own party.

Over against this combination of Government majority and President there stand two well-defined parties—that of the Constitutional Opposition, which fights the ministry on the lines of the Constitution (*Statuto*) and follows in general the lead of Zanardelli, and the Opposition at any price, the Extreme Left, whose mouthpieces during the present crisis have been chiefly Deputies Ferri and Pantano. This extreme wing of the radical faction has been the centre of the parliamentary agitation. Its leaders are clever men, sure of their support in all the restless elements of the Italian population, always present and on the alert to trip their opponents, especially the Ministry or the President of the Chamber, utterly unscrupulous as to methods, and always posing as champions of popular liberty against the aggression of the majority. As in other European parliaments, the presence of Ministers in the House always gives to the Opposition, especially if this be small in numbers, the chance to accuse the Government of a tyrannous combination with the majority and its President, and this chance has been exploited in the past week at Rome in every conceivable form. Indeed, this idea underlies the whole encounter. To say who began it is impossible, as it always is when two parties are determined upon a fight. Doubtless the character of the Opposition has for years been a source of alarm and of real danger to the Government. Doubtless there exists in many parts of Italy, especially in the great manufacturing centres of the North, an element professedly hostile to the principles of the Constitution, and even, in its extreme forms, to all government whatsoever. On the other hand, the existing Constitution guarantees liberty of thought and its expression in the press, under certain restrictions, and any government which even seems to violate these guarantees must be prepared to face immediate and violent resistance. That is the germ of the present contention. Two lines of ministerial action, apparently without natural connection, have been attempted side by side, and have been made to cross and recross in apparently hopeless confusion.

One of these lines is the recognition by the Chamber of the right of the Ministry, by means of a royal decree, to take immediate action in regard to political associations, the press, and defence of the public service, without consulting the Chamber, but with the understanding that a subsequent vote of the Chamber shall be necessary to convert this decree into a law. This is the now famous "Decreto-Legge." The other line of action by the Ministry has been in regard to the reforms in procedure of such a sort that obstruction should be impossible beyond certain limits. So far as an outside observer can judge, the Ministry made a mistake in the former set of propositions. They go back to a decree of June 22, 1899, which raised then a storm of protest and led to the almost immediate closing of the session. It is the revival of the same propositions in the month of February which has brought about the present troubles. The Opposition declared at once that here was a hopeless mingling of the governmental powers—that if the Ministry could at its discretion issue decrees with the force of law, this meant a practical abolition of the law-making body; the reservation that such decrees must later be confirmed by the Chamber did not essentially change the principle. In this view the radical party was supported by a very large element of serious people throughout the country; but the majority in the Chamber was held together in defiance of such criticism.

The "Extremists," as they are now technically called, hereupon declared themselves forced by tyrannous coalition into the attitude of obstruction, and thus put another weapon into the hands of the Government party. Against obstruction there has always been, the world over, but one answer: "The business of the Legislature must be done," and some way must be found to do it. If the Government had been wrong in its propositions, the Opposition put itself in the wrong by its method of meeting them. The country was led to wish a plague upon both their houses, and could only feel itself dishonored by the disgraceful proceedings of the past weeks. Every known device of obstruction has been tried. When the *Decreto-Legge* in any form was before the House, the brazen-lunged orators of the Extreme would speak for hours upon every subject under heaven. Called to order by the President, they would go off into prolonged explanations of their precise parliamentary rights until the House, wearied out with fruitless eloquence, would adjourn, only to find the fight renewed on the morrow, with new orators and ever new requirements of parliamentary tactics. When the Extremists were for the moment compelled to allow some member of the majority to take the floor, they kept up a continuous fire of comments, varied by shouts and yells, pounding of desks, shaking of fists, and threats of violence.

The position of the President has been one of extreme difficulty. He has been vilified in every form possible to the vocabulary of a Latin legislature, but kept himself steady until a few days ago, when he felt his place untenable and resigned, only to be immediately reëlected by a great majority. Colombo has proved himself also a clever parliamentarian, equal to any situation, if only he had been presiding over men who would respect any rules of procedure whatever. The root of all the evil was in the determination of each party to throw the other into the wrong before the country. The Government said, "If you obstruct us in our effort to defend the peace and safety of the country, we will act without you." The Extreme replied, "If you propose to act unconstitutionally, we will obstruct to the bitter end." The Extreme said, "We should be false to our trust if we did not resist in every way the tyranny of a majority, which calls in the Government to help it in carrying measures which it could not carry in the regular way of procedure." The Ministry replied that its duty compelled it to defend the country against a worse tyranny yet, the tyranny of an irresponsible minority which deliberately prevented the wheels of legislation from moving. Taunted with being obstructionists, the Extreme replied, "It is not we who are obstructing; it is you, the Government, who are obstructing the regular working of the Constitution."

How far the minority were willing to go is seen from the proposition, made a fortnight ago, to summon a general Italian Constituent Assembly, members to be chosen by a plébiscite, which should consider a wholesale revision of the existing Constitution—in other words, a peaceful revolution. If this was a "feeler" for the country, the result cannot have been very encouraging. Here and there some demonstrations were held, but the prospect of losing all they have gained under the monarchy of Savoy for the utter uncertainty of such leadership as the parties of discontent have to offer, is not alluring. The "Costituente" remains a war-cry, but it frightens no babe as yet.

It was predicted days ago that the Government would prorogue the Chamber; but it has not done so, and the confusion of a general election would probably be anything but welcome to it. On the contrary, it has more and more let the *Decreto-Legge* slip into the background, and there seems to be a general expectation that on the reassembling of the Chamber this bone of contention will be abandoned altogether. The most recent effort of the Government has been concentrated on the reforms of procedure. A scheme of changes looking towards the prevention of obstruction was presented by the Government and reported to the House on the 29th of March. The Prime Minister, Pelloux, moved that the discussion on the *Decreto-Legge* be suspended, and that a rising vote on the reforms of procedure be taken on the following Tuesday. Deputies De Niccolo and Ferri asked to be heard upon the declaration of the Ministry, but President Colombo refused to recognize them, and called for a rising vote. It was taken in the midst of a furious uproar, and the proposition was declared approved. The President at once closed the session, but only the most serious efforts of the cooler heads prevented a series of personal encounters. The leaders of the Left drew up a formal protest against the validity of all the acts of this session, and this protest became the central feature of the radical policy. When the President took his seat

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next morning, he was greeted by the Extreme with yells of, "Out with him! Out with him!"—and, after ten minutes of this uproar, he put on his hat and left the Chamber. The session of the day ended before it had begun. On the following morning Vice-President Palberti called the Chamber to order, and announced the resignation of President Colombo. At the session of Monday, the 2d, the leaders of the two Left sections entered again a protest against the action of the 29th and against all future action to be based thereon. The Chamber then proceeded to reëlect President Colombo by a vote of 265 in a total of 438. When it came to fixing the order of the day for the 3d, the uproar began anew, yells of "No! No!" being supplemented by the continuous blowing of penny whistles. The President pro tem. could put the motion only by signs, but it was carried by the unanimous rising of the Government sections.

The culminating events of the 3d have been already described. The withdrawal of the Extremists was on the whole a clever move. It leaves them a free hand to go into the next session with any reservations they please. It gives them a certain shimmer of martyrdom, which has already attracted to them the sympathies of some conservative forces. It enables them to say, "Now the country sees what this unholy coalition is capable of as it is; what may it not do when it is strengthened by a new set of rules specially designed to muzzle every organ of individual liberty?"

Meanwhile, there is but one really happy Italian party. The clericals, sitting quietly by, are rejoicing in this new demonstration of what they consider a divine retribution upon the wicked Government that is trampling upon their rights. E. E.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN POOR RELIEF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of the most difficult questions confronting the Southern States at the present time is the betterment of the defective classes of their population. Public education in the towns and cities has been so radically improved of late that many of the school systems of such communities may be very favorably compared with those of any other portion of the country; but in the sparsely settled rural districts there is much to be done in point both of efficiency and of duration of the school term. A very healthy symptom, however, is the augmenting importance which is being attached throughout the South to the subject of technical education for the children of both races. This matter is being urged not only by social and political reformers, but also by the various industrial organizations that have been called into existence by the altered economic conditions of this section. But, hopeful as this increased activity on the part of the Southern States may be, perhaps even more significant and cheering is the increase of vitality on the part of the Southern Church. So great, so complete has been the change in this direction during the past few years that it almost amounts to a revolution, and now there is no more earnest, thorough body of social reformers than the Southern clergy. And while their efforts to ameliorate the condition of the less fortunate classes of the South are limited to no race, attention has at last been turned to the long neglected poorer order of whites. This whole movement, therefore, is fraught with the widest possibilites for good, and will be sure to attract general attention. Now that the South is wealthier than ever before, it can ill afford to overlook any section of its population, and nowhere is this truth more forcibly realized than in the Southern States. Unfortunately, however, organized efforts to reach the more backward inhabitants of the mountainous districts are, so far, few and far between; but the growing number of charity and relief boards in the larger towns is at once a sign and a promise of an improved order of things in the more remote rural parts of this section.

Of the many active workers in this field of social reform in the various cities of the South, one of the most earnest and successful is the Rev. A. E. Cornish, of Charleston, South Carolina, whose labors in connection with the Sheltering Arms of that place have won for him a lasting place on the roll of philanthropists. For several years Mr. Cornish has been actively at work among the poor of Charleston, and, after having very carefully studied local conditions, he is now making an experiment which will be observed with interest by students of pauperism everywhere, but nowhere more keenly than in the Southern States, whose recent industrial revolution has been accompanied by the same suffering as that witnessed in England early in this century. Mr. Cornish appears to have grasped many of the difficulties of the situation as well as the serious economic features of the subject. Unlike many other city missionaries, he appears to have grasped the radical distinction between the victims of transient misfortune and paupers, and in treating the latter class he goes far below superficial evidences of distress. Realizing that many cases of pauperism may be traced directly to bad environment and disinclination to work, Mr. Cornish has hit upon the expedient of curing both diseases with the same remedy, and with this end in view he has rented a large farm on historic James Island, where he proposes to put his ideas into practical operation. Here market supplies can be produced at slight cost, and boys and girls trained in a most useful calling. At the same time, foodstuffs will be grown here for the Sheltering Arms in Charleston. In other words, the poor will be helped by teaching them to help themselves.

This relief plan of Mr. Cornish seems, in many respects, to be an improvement on the "Elberfeld system," and while it may probably be more successful in a small city than in a populous one at the North, it has several distinct advantages over many present schemes of poor relief. First of all, there is a change of environment, which is just as often as not a positive gain. The situation of the colony is as healthy as that of any place in the low country of South Carolina, and it is surrounded by the summer residences of the neighboring planters. Secondly, Mr. Cornish's plan does not tend to break up the family life of the persons relieved, but on the contrary serves to foster it. There will be a number of detached cottages, each with its plot of ground. At the same time a school will be erected for the children. Hence the treatment of these destitute persons will in its nature be both remedial and reformatory. Lastly, this plan will test again the possibilities of applying to agriculture the principles of coöperation, and, if it meets with the success it promises and deserves, may bring about some very revolutionary and wholesome changes in the Southern States.

Very respectfully, B. J. RAMAGE.

SEWANEE, TENN., April 16, 1900.

DESPOTISM IN COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In noticing an article in the April *Atlantic* entitled "The Perplexities of a College President," by "One of the Guild," you characterize it as "conceived in the spirit and couched in the style of the educational drummer," and you characterize it most justly and truly. No more mischievous attempt to lower the high ideal of what a college should be which college men have been wont to cherish, have I ever seen. The article, to be sure, has its merits: it is brilliantly written, and undeniably gives a vivid picture of some of the real and serious difficulties which college presidents over and over again encounter in their work; but the good that it contains is almost wholly nullified by the evil, by the vicious reasoning which it exhibits, and by the tone of sordid commercialism which pervades it.

The ideal of a college which "One of the Guild" plainly cherishes is one whose work is conducted in all its lines according to the methods most approved of by the successful business enterprise of the day. The president of a college, he thinks, should occupy much such a position as that of the general manager of a large commercial corporation—that is, he should be given not only practically absolute authority in all matters of general administration, but full power to interfere, with criticisms and suggestions, in affairs purely departmental. On assuming office, he should surround himself with "a corps of competent, loyal, and ambitious assistants," and together they should set a "hot pace" for all competing institutions. In a word, they should be "hustlers" first, last, and all the time.

It may be admitted, now, that a college which is conspicuously successful in all that relates to the true function of a college, may also be successful from the lower and purely commercial point of view, but the one does not follow necessarily from the other. A college, in the management of its purely business affairs, should, of course, adopt strictly business methods, and in matters of general administration it should, doubtless, be at least willing to see if it can learn anything from the successful commercial corporation. When, however, it comes to a matter touching the essential function of a college—to arranging a course of study, for instance—the case is quite different. The aim of a commercial corporation is material success—success measured in dollars and cents—the production of such and such commodities being simply the means to that end: the more commodities produced and sold at a profit, the greater the success. With a college, however, the aim is radically different. Not on the credit which may accrue to it from a large number of students turned out with the label "B.A."

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or "B.S.," as the case may be—not on the gain expected from the product; that is—but on the product itself does the college centre its interest. Its aim, if it be true to the purpose for which it exists, is to give the best possible training it can to every student who seeks and is at the same time able to profit by that training. And, in giving that training, it cannot follow the definite, precise methods employed by the manufacturer—exactly the same for each article of each class—from the very obvious fact that all men are not precisely alike, and are not, moreover, mere passive blocks of raw material. Hence the utter fallaciousness of attempting to draw any close analogy between the work of a college and that of a business enterprise.

"One of the Guild" practically admits this when he says, "Of course there are points where the parallel between the business world and the educational world is not complete." Of course there are; more than that, these very points are the all-important points—the points touching the vital and essential functions of a college. The points where the parallel is complete, or more or less complete, are the comparatively unimportant ones. But it is on these unimportant points that "One of the Guild" throws his chief emphasis. Therein, of course, lies the fallaciousness of his reasoning; for he gives a distorted and wholly erroneous view of the proper function of a college.

If "One of the Guild" were the only one of his guild who held such views as he expresses, we could afford to let him have his say, and straightway forget him; but unfortunately he is not the only one. A learned and distinguished Frenchman, visiting recently a university in the West which has lately become very prominent, and which has been conspicuously successful from a commercial point of view, asked the president what he regarded as the chief reason of the extraordinary success of his university; and the president promptly and complacently replied, "Because, sir, the affairs of this university are run precisely as are those of a great commercial enterprise." The Frenchman, feeling that it would be more than superfluous to ask another question, bowed politely and withdrew.

It is the business of the teaching staff of a college not only to impart to those under their care known truth, but to seek to discover new truth, or at least new aspects, new applications of truth already known; and it is not likely to be very greatly assisted in this work by being placed at the beck and call of a despot. Slaves and sycophants have never been preëminent as revealers of truth; nor have despotisms commonly been supposed to produce the conditions most favorable to the discovery of truth. It is notorious that in many of our colleges nowadays an instructor is not at liberty to speak above a whisper about the policy or general administration of the affairs of his college—matters in which he may, presumably, be as deeply interested, and upon which he may, possibly, be as well qualified to speak, as the president himself. Is this, now, a wholly desirable condition of things? Surely not. In the college, if anywhere, speech should be free.

College presidents are, after all, mere men, and liable to the same weaknesses other men are exposed to. Your gifted administrator who is at the same time an able scholar, a fine teacher, and an inspiring and prudent leader, is still an exceedingly rare bird—so rare as to be quite beyond the reach of most colleges. Indeed, few boards of trustees would be able to recognize such a bird, even if they had him in their hands, for they are not, as a rule, noted either for their discernment or for their zeal in seeking enlightenment. In fact, as "One of the Guild" hints, supineness on the part of the trustees is a fruitful source of trouble in many of our colleges. But is the remedy to be found in making the president absolute? Scarcely so. If there is danger in their supineness now, there would be tenfold more danger in it then.

The writer, for example, has in mind the case of a small college, where, a few years ago, a new man was called to the presidency. The college needed a thorough reorganization, and the board hoped it had secured just the man for the work. He proved, however, to be utterly unequal to it himself—a man with no tact, no constancy of purpose, no powers of leadership; in short, a man so wobbling and erratic in his gait that he could by no possibility move forward in a straight line unless led, or set in a groove and shot forward along it by some irresistible force from behind—and he had, as a consequence, to fall back upon the much-disparaged faculty committee for the accomplishment of the desired reorganization. The president, however, by dint of keeping the credulous ears of his rather indolent board well stuffed with plausible stories of what *he* was doing for the college, somehow managed to retain his position; and he still retains it, as a matter of fact. All attempts at steering him in a straight line, however, have proved unavailing; for with that arbitrariness often seen in illogical minds, he persists in kicking over the traces now and then, rendering all efforts towards harmonious coöperation between the faculty and himself quite futile, and thereby seriously impairing the usefulness of the college.

This, of course, is an extreme case, but it is a real one, and one that may happen in a good many of our small colleges. The responsibility here, to be sure, rests on the trustees, who have been manifestly neglectful of their duty; but so sunk in their indifference are they that it is difficult to bring them to a realization of their neglect. Would it be less difficult if they were encouraged, as "One of the Guild" proposes, to trust to the president's advice in everything, and turn a *deaf ear to the advice of all others? It must* be remembered that public opinion, which is so powerful a factor in keeping the trustees of the few very large colleges on the alert, does not usually count for much in the case of the very small colleges, which are, as a rule, little exposed to the scrutiny and criticism of the public. And if the lips of the faculty are sealed, whence is to come that open and free criticism which seems so necessary and wholesome a discipline for all public officials, whether in the college or in the state?—Very truly yours,

A. Professor.

THE ART STUDENTS' LEAGUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The celebration by the Art Students' League of New York of its twenty-fifth anniversary, to be held May 9-13, calls attention to the excellent work done by this institution. When it was founded in 1875, the League was practically the only art school in America in which drawing was taught after the manner of the best French schools. To-day there are a number of institutions in Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, and other cities which offer excellent opportunities for the study of drawing and painting, so that the League no longer maintains the supremacy held by it in the first years of its growth. It is still, however, one of the largest and best-equipped art schools in the world, and is at present making experiments in art education that seem to be destined to have far-reaching results.

Briefly stated, what the League is trying to do is to bridge over the gulf between class-room and studio. The ordinary student, after spending four or five years in the schools, finds that although he has learned to draw the figure in the most approved manner, he is still untaught in most of the rudiments of studio practice. His training has led only in the direction of the making of easel pictures, and for that he has been imperfectly trained.

The League has this year begun the policy of allowing a few of the more advanced students to carry on large decorative studies to practical completion. Models are posed for specific purposes. Studies of drapery are made. Decorative motives nave to be sought outside the school from nature. In short, the pupils make under supervision just such elaborate preparations as must be made by the professional artist who undertakes to do a serious piece of work.

These advanced life classes are very successful, and very popular. The enthusiasm with which they have been greeted leads to the hope that another year will see classes started in decorative design—a branch of art which has heretofore been sadly neglected at the League. The school, which has always been self-supporting, has been hindered by the experimental nature of such classes from establishing them. An effort is now being made to raise an endowment fund so that the League may securely extend its sphere of usefulness and embrace in its course the various applied arts.

Frederick W. Coburn.

[We believe our correspondent's praise of the League to be quite within bounds, and that the school thoroughly deserves the support of an endowment.—Ed. Nation.]

POSTAL-CARDS AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The discussion of the American postal-card is pertinent. The postal-cards lately seem to be largely of the nature of blotting-paper, as this sample shows clearly enough. It is discouraging to see what this piece of Government stationery makes of a postal-card communication. A. H. Allen.

Cambridge, Mass., April 20, 1900.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "L." might have added to his complaint that we had for a time the choice of using a whiter card, of stiffer material, and which could be enclosed addressed when one wished to facilitate an immediate reply without using the largest-sized envelopes; but this has lately been

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withdrawn, and we must now be content with the ugly, large, whitey-brown thing with its badly printed title and stamp.

On the other hand, it should be remembered that the British post-offices make a small charge for their cards over and above the cost of the stamp, the stationers having at the outset protested that it would be unfair to them if the Government should cut into their trade by supplying the public with stationery gratis. C. J. G.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While your readers are asking for a genteel postal-card—one that does not have the uncertain color of the present issue—I would again ask why cannot the Postal Union issue an international five-cent stamp and two-cent postal-card, good for any country in the Postal Union? It would be a boon of incalculable convenience to travellers. They could be issued at Bern, where the clearing-house of the Postal Union is located. Every country would draw its supplies from there, and be charged for what it drew. Then, when going abroad, one could buy them at any office in each country and use them where a person just happened to be.

In travelling, there is nothing more unpleasant or time-wasting than hunting up a post-office. I remember going to the Stuttgart post-office for stamps, to find that the stamp window was closed from 12 to 2 P. M. It takes a German postal official two hours to get his dinner and afternoon siesta. In Venice, I had to take a gondola in order to get my letters off as soon as I arrived, because I had no Italian stamps. An international stamp bought before leaving home would be a great convenience. F.

AN INQUIRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to ask through you whether any of your readers can tell me where to find access, in this country, to a copy of the *Jahrbücher des Vereins von Alterthumsfreunden im Rheinlande*, Heft xiv., Bonn, 1849? It contains an article on a subject in which I am interested, and I should be much obliged to any one who would help me to reach it.

Yours sincerely, M. H. MORGAN.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 22, 1900.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co.'s forthcoming batch of novels relate to Italian New York, 'The Last Lady of Mulberry Bend,' by Henry Wilton Thomas; Welsh life, 'Garthowen,' by Allen Raine; and American life, 'The Immortal Garland,' by Anna Robeson Brown. The author of 'Red Pottage,' Mary Cholmondeley, makes a new venture with 'Diana Tempest,' and J. Storer Clouston offers a romance, 'The Lunatic at Large.'

Nearly ready is Mr. David Dwight Wells's 'His Lordship's Leopard,' of which Henry Holt & Co. are the publishers.

The 'Jeffersonian Cyclopædia' of Funk & Wagnalls Co. is expected to be issued by June 1.

Harper & Bros. announce that after May 1 their *Harper's Bazar* will become a weekly magazine for women, with a new form.

Dr. George R. Parkin's "record of a strenuous life," in a sense different from the cant of the hour, namely, his well-received biography, 'Edward Thring, Headmaster of Uppingham School,' has just been reissued through Macmillan in an abridged form. A single volume has resulted from two, but the omissions will scarcely be felt except by readers having associations with Uppingham. Some rearrangement is also acknowledged by the author. The book is handsome.

Upwards of thirty pages have been added to the new edition of Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd's entertaining 'Total Eclipses of the Sun' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), which we noticed in 1894. The narrative is now brought down through the two eclipses of 1896 and 1898 to the eve of the one impending, which will be observed by Prof. and Mrs. Todd in Africa, and will in time, no doubt, be reported in a later issue of the same work. Handy for reference is a list of total eclipses from 1842 to 1973, sufficiently long for the lives of most purchasers; and so are the charts of tracks, retrospective and prospective in the next eighty years. Observers in the United States will be rather more favored than in the past half century, and this holds true of our new island possessions in both hemispheres.

"Thorough" has been Mr. J. R. Tutin's motto in preparing his 'Concordance to FitzGerald's Translation of the Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám' (Macmillan). Every *a* and *the* is as religiously recorded as the significant words. Naturally, in so limited a poem, the unique usages are relatively numerous (14 out of 23 on p. 40, for example). The book is daintily printed and bound, and will help on the Omar-FitzGerald cult.

In the 'Forms of Prose Literature' (Scribners) Mr. John Hays Gardiner of Harvard has made a valuable addition to the multitude of manuals on criticism and composition. The recognition of the two essential elements in a work of true literature, "the organic unity of conception" and "the pervasive personality of the artist"; the broad division of literature into that of thought and that of feeling (or, as some phrase it, "knowledge" and "power"); the subdivision of the former class under the headings of Exposition, Argument, and Criticism, and of the latter under Narration and Description (has not one genus been overlooked here?)—are not novel, of course; but what we want in a work like this is not novelty, but soundness. To the present writer the work seems eminently sound and rational, and so far from being a mere echo of other writers that it gives the impression of being the fruit of independent study and reflection. The style is attractive, the copious examples are well chosen, and the book cannot fail of being helpful to teachers and pleasing as well as profitable to students.

The distinguished Italian scholar, Prof. Francesco Flamini, of the University of Padua, has just published a brief 'Compendio di Storia della Letteratura Italiana' (Leghorn: Giusti), which, though written for use in secondary instruction, deserves a wider audience, on account of its completeness, accuracy, and conciseness. Its scope is broad, including the contemporary literature of Italy, and the volume, as a whole, records the latest results of modern Italian scholarship. It may be recommended as an excellent academic text-book.

The forty-fifth and final volume of the elaborate and excellent German biographical dictionary, 'Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie,' has just appeared. The work was planned more than a quarter of a century ago, and the first volume published in 1875 under the general direction of the historical commission of the Bavarian Academy of Sciences and the editorship of Rochus von Liliencron, who, although now eighty years of age, has had the good fortune to retain the bodily and mental vigor necessary to complete the difficult task, in which he was assisted by 1,418 collaborators. The biographies number 23,273, including artists, authors, actors, merchants, professional and military men, princes, statesmen, scholars, and indeed all German men and women whose lives and achievements would be of interest to the public. Many of these sketches are so full that they might be very appropriately printed each in a separate pamphlet, and would furnish in this form a valuable and delightful series of memoirs. It is the intention of the editor to add a few supplementary volumes, containing biographies of those who have made themselves worthy of a place in the work between 1875 and 1900, after the volumes to which they would have been assigned alphabetically had been already issued.

Prof. Anton E. Schönbach's volume entitled 'Gesammelte Aufsätze zur neueren Litteratur in Deutschland, Oesterreich, Amerika' (Graz: Leuschner & Lubensky) is an exceedingly interesting and instructive collection of addresses and critical essays on some salient features of German, Austrian, and American literature. The contents of the first two sections are rather fragmentary in their character. The most important papers are on Schiller's relations to modern culture, Uhland as dramatist, Gustav Freytag, the Germanist Karl Müllenhoff, Joseph Schreyvogel-West ("Thomas West" was his pseudonym), a contemporary of Goethe, influential as a critic and journalist, but insignificant as a poet, Grillparzer, Anastasius Grün, and the celebrated dramatists Eduard von Bauernfeld and Ludwig Anzengruber. The third section, devoted to American literature, is marked by far greater unity of conception and execution. It begins with a fine appreciation of Fenimore Cooper based upon Prof. Lounsbury's biography of the novelist, followed by an essay on Longfellow's drama, an admirable and exhaustive study of Nathaniel Hawthorne, and a general survey of the development of the American novel and its gradual differentiation from its English prototype. In the treatment of his subject the author gives evidence of thorough knowledge and warm sympathy, and his judgments of our literary achievements and tendencies are remarkably discriminating and just.

The seventieth annual report of the Dante Society of Cambridge, Mass., is, but for the Treasurer's accounts, a misnomer, owing to the Secretary's absence. Mr. Lane's customary list of additions to the Harvard Dante collection is not wanting, and there is a paper by Prof. Kenneth McKenzie on Dante's two references to Æsop, viz., to the Cock and the Pearl and the Mouse and the Frog. It is made apparent that the poet's acquaintance with these fables was by way of Romulus's translation of Phædrus, and the collection known as Anonymus Neveleti, of which Ulrich Boner's translation, 'Edelstein' (so called after the initial Cock and Pearl fable), was the first book printed in German. The other fable, though contained in Romulus, is not found in Phædrus's

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text as it has come down to us. The discussion is curious and fairly convincing.

In the current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (October meeting, 1899) Senator Hoar explains how Mr. Evarts induced the English to submit to the Geneva Arbitration Conference in spite of the presence of "indirect damages" in the American case as made up by Mr. Bancroft Davis. "You can," he said to them, "withdraw just as well after you get there as before"; and he then arranged on the spot with the English counsel to permit the tribunal to throw out the claim in advance.

The *Geographical Journal* for April contains an account, by Sir John Murray, of the results of a bathymetrical survey of the eight fresh-water lochs of the Trossachs and Callander district, including the temperature, organic life, rainfall, and outflow. A series of seven colored maps, showing the general physical features of the whole region and the details of each loch on a larger scale, together with some illustrations of scenery and a new sounding-machine, accompany the article. Dr. H. R. Mill treats of the agriculture, industries, vital statistics, and movement of population of southwest Sussex, being the conclusion of his experimental paper on a "fragment of the geography of England." It is suggested that a similar memoir should be published for each of the four hundred sheets of the Ordnance Survey.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, number two, gives us the conclusion of Dr. Petterson's report on the hydrographic researches in the North Atlantic of the English, Scandinavian, and Russian expeditions of 1895-96. The accompanying maps show the contour of the bottom at various places, and the direction of the "Flaschenposten" or bottle-drift. This is followed by a detailed description of the artificial irrigation system adopted in British India, including wells, tanks, and canals, their cost when ascertainable, and the amount of land irrigated. Among the minor articles is one by Dr. E. Hammer on an equal-area projection for equatorial maps.

Prof. Philipp Zorn of Königsberg has contributed to the *Rundschau* for January, February, and April, under the title "Die völkerrechtlichen Ergebnisse der Haager Conferenz," a commentary on the transactions and principal results of the Peace Congress, in which he took part as one of the German delegates. His articles are well deserving the notice of all students interested in the history of that memorable event.

That the rigidity of the Prussian character is not equivalent to immobility is no new discovery, and yet one cannot help wondering at the energy with which the foremost state of the empire is pushing educational reform without much regard for time-honored customs. Scarcely has the ear become accustomed to the new, composite title of Doctor-Ingenieur when it is announced that the Prussian Minister of Education has entered into correspondence with the German universities with a view to a further restriction or entire exclusion of the use of the Latin language in various academical transactions; the obligatory Latin of dissertations, except for classical philologists and Catholic theologians, having been done away with already during the last quarter of a century. Another question at present occupying the different governments, also upon Prussian initiative, concerns the remission of the examination in Greek now required of students of medicine from the Realgymnasia, who, in future, would have to take a supplementary examination in Latin only, and, by a further liberal provision, be allowed to defer the same for several semesters after entering the university. With the exception of the little Grand Duchy of Baden, ever in the van of modern ideas, the Prussian Government is also the most progressive in its regulations for the higher education of women, though, on this line, every step in advance in made cautiously and tentatively. At Heidelberg and Freiburg (Baden), women provided with "certificates of maturity" from gymnasia are now allowed to matriculate as regular students. At Giessen (Hesse) new regulations for their admission as "hearers" have been in force since April 1. (For details one may consult *Hochschul-Nachrichten* for March.) As a rule, whatever measures are taken by the leading institutions, especially in Prussia, are sure to be adopted in course of time even by the most conservative states—if for no better reason than "im Interesse einer einheitlichen Regelung."

On March 2 the philosophical faculty of the University of Heidelberg conferred the degree of Ph.D. *summa cum laude* on Miss Erla Hittle of Richmond, Ind., as the result of an examination in English Philology and Literature as the main subject, and in Germanic Philology and the History of Art as collateral branches of study. Her thesis treated of "the Old English Prepositions 'mid' and 'with.'" Miss Hittle studied at the University of Indiana under Prof. Karsten and then at Cornell University, where she took the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy in 1893. During the past five years she has continued her studies at Leipzig under Prof. Sievers and at Heidelberg under Prof. Hoops, head of the department of English philology. As every candidate for a degree must be examined on three subjects, she also attended at the latter institution the courses of lectures on Germanic Philology by Prof. Braune and on the History of Art by Prof. Thode. The conferring of a degree *summa cum laude* implies the passing of a first-class examination in all three branches of study selected by the candidate. The attainment of this rare distinction is very creditable to Miss Hittle, who took time to do her work thoroughly, instead of trying to rush through the academic courses in a few semesters, as is the case with too many Americans in German universities.

Paul Heyse, who has passed the winter at Gardone on Lago di Garda, celebrated his seventieth birthday there on March 15. Not only the people of the village, where he was temporarily residing, decorated his villa with flowers in honor of the occasion, but also official addresses were presented by the municipalities of Munich and other German cities, and more than a thousand letters and poems were received from all parts of Europe. His reply to these warm greetings of his literary colleagues was an appropriate poem entitled "Meinen Freunden" and printed with his signature on a sheet of vellum paper, one of which was sent to each of his congratulators. We are glad to note that Paul Heyse's three-score years and ten have brought with them no diminution of the freshness and vigor of his imagination, but rather a constant enlargement and enrichment of his creative faculties, a ripening and mellowing of his poetic productions. The versatility of his genius, evinced not only by his success as a novelist, dramatist, and lyrical poet, but also by his skill as an artist, recalls the many-sidedness of the masters of the Italian Renaissance and not a few Italians of our own day.

Mr. William I. Fletcher's Amherst (Mass.) Summer School in Library Economy will open on July 6 and close on August 17. No previous knowledge of library work is exacted. The class is necessarily limited.

The new circular of the American School of Classical Studies at Rome shows that the resident staff for 1900-1901 will consist of the Director, Mr. Richard Norton, who will lecture on Ancient Archæology and Art and the Topography and Monuments of Ancient Rome; and Prof. Francis W. Kelsey of the University of Michigan, whose topics will be Roman Architecture and Latin Epigraphy. Other courses may be expected from eminent specialists, Italian and German. The usual excursions will be made in the peninsula and to Greece. Further information, as to qualifications, cost of living, etc., may be had on application to Prof. E. T. Merrill, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

We are requested by the Receiver of D. Appleton & Co. to say that a newspaper statement to the effect that a Book Trust is now forming, and that it already controls the above house, among others, is unworthy of the slightest credence. Equally false is the report that an offer had been made by the Receiver to some creditors of 66 2-3 cents on the dollar of their claims, which offer had been generally refused. There has been no offer whatsoever. The Receiver's confident expectation is that the creditors will receive dollar for dollar, and that there will be an abundant equity for the stockholders. While no official report has yet been made by him, his examination seems to justify the conclusion that the Company's assets exceed its liabilities in the ratio of more than two to one.

—"The Clarke Papers' which are being edited for the Royal Historical Society by Mr. C. H. Firth, now reach their third volume (Longmans). The documents come, as before, from the MSS. of Worcester College, and the period covered is April 23, 1653-April 30, 1659. William Clarke, it will be remembered, was Secretary to the Council of the Army from 1647-1649, and to General Monk and the Commanders of the Army in Scotland from 1657-1660. While his collections do not reach the same level of importance with those of Rushworth, they are valuable, and they call forth, besides, the fine prefaces of Mr. Firth. Scotland would naturally be the main subject of this volume but for the fact that a portion of the MSS. has already been used by the Scottish Historical Society in 'Scotland and the Commonwealth' (1895) and 'Scotland and the Protectorate' (1899). Mr. Firth presents, therefore, the material which relates to England and the Continent. Scotland comes in at intervals, but not prominently. With regard to contents, a large part of the volume consists of newsletters prepared in London for the information of the Commander and his staff officers in Scotland. These were written chiefly by George Downing, Gilbert Mabbott, and John Rushworth, and deal with the political situation, both

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domestic and foreign. Some personal narratives and official letters are also given. The three topics which we select for notice among many others are Cromwell's relations with Parliament, the conduct of English troops on the Continent in their operations against the Spaniards, and the character of Richard Cromwell's difficulties in governing England. These are all important matters, and they receive a good deal of elucidation from the 'Clarke Papers.'

—The present volume opens with an account, which may be called official, of the dismissal of the Long Parliament. Comparing it with the celebrated passage in Blencowe's 'Sydney Papers,' one at once observes a minimizing of the harshness employed. The newsletter states that the Speaker, "refusing to come out of the chaire, was (modestly) pull'd out by a member of Parliament and army; and soe the members walk't out, and the Parliament was dissolved with as little noyse as can be imagined." Here there is no hint of Cromwell's sharp reproof of the Commons when he walked to and fro with his hat on his head, chiding the several members who had incurred his displeasure. For the employment of the 6,000 Ironsides on the Continent, several new pieces are cited, telling of what they suffered from disease, and how they stormed the Spanish escarpments at Dunkirk to the admiration of Turenne. The letters of Col. Drummond and Lieutenant-Colonel Hughes immediately after the Dunkirk engagement are very welcome. Drummond says of Lockhart's regiment: "It has done what I have never seen done before, for they charged and beate a Spanish regiment of a hill more steep than any ascent of a breach that I have seene." The difficulties attending Richard Cromwell's protectorate are fully set forth both in the text and in the preface. Mr. Firth agrees that the chief trouble came from the army. "The danger to Richard's rule lay in the discontent of some of the officers and the ambition of others." One of the best documents cited is the contribution of Mr. W. W. Dodge of Cambridge. He has taken from the Massachusetts State Archives a letter describing the preliminaries of Richard's fall. It is written by Nehemiah Bourne, who pretends to have been behind the scenes and sympathizes with the army.

—A year ago the Strassburg Library acquired a number of papyrus inscriptions, purchased from dealers in Egypt. Among these have been found fragments of a Koptic manuscript of a gospel. In a brochure entitled 'Ein neues Evangelienfragment,' published by Trübner of Strassburg (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), Dr. Adolf Jacoby describes and discusses these fragments, with the aid of four excellent photogravures. Two pages are fairly well preserved, and can be restored with a tolerable degree of completeness. On grounds of palæography the fragments are ascribed to the fifth or sixth century. Dr. Jacoby supposes them to be a portion of a Koptic translation of the Gospel according to the Egyptians, citations from which are preserved in the second epistle of Clement of Rome, and to which, following Harnack, he would also assign the Logia of Jesus found at Behnesa a year or two since. This gospel, he concludes, contrary to the ordinary view, was neither Gnostic or docetic. It shows an acquaintance with all four of our canonical gospels, but stands closest to John, and is in fact to be attributed to the Johannine school, of the thought of which it is a further development. It was composed about or shortly after 130 A. D., and contains some material of independent historical value. The fragments are all from the latter part of the gospel. They contain a fragment of a discourse of Christ, which may be said to correspond to John 14-17. This is put in the mouth of Jesus, who designates himself as "the only begotten." The reverse of the same fragment is the scene in the garden of Gethsemane, which depends on the synoptic gospels rather than on John. It is related in the first person plural. An interesting divergence from the synoptic gospels is the application of the words, "The spirit indeed is willing, but the flesh is weak," to Jesus himself, as a reason, apparently, why the apostles should remain and watch with him. Jacoby is inclined to think that this represents a more original tradition with regard to these words than that of the synoptic gospels. The other fragments contained an account of the ascension, related in the first person plural, after a discourse by Jesus. As elucidating a curious phrase in the first discourse of Jesus, "By whom shall the claw of death be destroyed?" Dr. Jacoby publishes in the same brochure a Greek papyrus fragment, now in the museum at Ghizeh (pap. 10,623), containing a prayer-charm, text from the fourth or fifth century, in which death is designated as Charon, whose claws Jesus has broken. Parts of this remind one of the Apostles' creed, but to the simple statements of that formula is added a mass of other material. It closes with a doxology similar to that commonly added to the Lord's Prayer. Jacoby ascribes the origin of this document to the second Christian century, and finds that it makes use of the Gospel according to the Egyptians.

—The Egyptian Sudan has been divided into five provinces and three small districts, with three British officers for each province; the remaining magistrates being mostly native officers of the Egyptian army. The law which they administer consists of a Code of Criminal Procedure and a Sudan Penal Code. A prominent feature of the latter is the severe penalties, "amounting to a *maximum* of seven years' imprisonment," against kidnapping and trafficking in slaves. The abolition of domestic slavery is not contemplated at present, but "cavalry, camel corps, and police patrols are actively on the watch to check the traffic in slaves, especially the importation by Arab merchants of kidnapped black slave girls from the south. The markets are watched to prevent illicit bargains under cover of transactions in goods. The caravan routes are guarded, and caravans examined for slaves about to be exported from the ports of the Red Sea." Almost better still, the London *Times* correspondent from whom we quote adds, "The black battalions everywhere spread the news among their enslaved kinsmen that they are legally free." According to the *Times*, Lord Kitchener laid down the principle, in his instructions to his officers, that "the Government does not recognize greater rights on the part of the master as against his slaves than are recognized as against any other servant." Domestic slavery will continue practically to exist, but the slave is no longer legally his master's property, and has a claim against his master for maintenance and fair treatment, which can be made good at law. "And in this intermediate stage of emancipation the slaves of the Sudan will probably continue during the first period of British rule." The relatives of the Mahdi and the Khalifa and a few of the principal Dervish Emirs have been deported to Egypt as prisoners of war. To the other Dervishes a free pardon has been granted, and the blacks have enlisted very generally in the army, while the Arabs are cultivating the land, cutting sudd at Fashoda, and rebuilding Khartum. The revival of the country under the Anglo-Egyptian rule is remarkable. Notwithstanding the great difficulty of collecting taxes from a people impoverished almost to starvation from war and misrule, a revenue "greatly in excess of the estimate of 1899" has been raised, and there is a "large balance in the provincial accounts of Dongola, and a considerable one in those of Berber and Wady Halfa."

—Masakazu Stehachi Toyama died in Tokyo on the 6th of March, at the age of fifty-three. He was the first Japanese student to enter the University of Michigan. There he spent two years, 1873-75, and there he received, in 1886, the honorary degree of master of arts. The following summary of a letter to President Angell from Dr. Yeijiro Ono will interest his many personal friends in America and others who knew of him by reputation. In his native country he was prominent as an educator and as a literary critic. In the Imperial University he served successively as professor of sociology, dean of the literary department, and President. He was a life member of the House of Peers. In 1898, at the organization of Marquis Ito's cabinet, he was called from the University to serve as Minister of State for Education. Though his term of office was only three months, owing to the dissolution of the cabinet, he made many important changes in the educational system of Japan. Since his retirement from official life he has written and spoken freely on all important questions. By his wit and eloquence as well as by his personal character he made a profound impression on the national thought. He had been ill since last fall, at first with influenza, and later with pneumonia, the after-effect of which was a trouble in the ear, which so affected his brain that a surgical operation was necessary. The operation was unsuccessful. In his last moments he was decorated by the Emperor with various honors. His death is mourned not only by his friends and pupils, who number several thousands, but by all intellectual classes in Japan. Dr. Toyama was a loyal son of the University of Michigan, and, at the time of his death, was a member of the executive committee of the Ann Arbor Association in Tokyo.

THE WRIT AND THE SPADE.

Authority and Archæology, Sacred and Profane. Essays on the Relation of the Monuments to Biblical and Classical Literature. Edited by David G. Hogarth. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899. Pp. xix.+440, 8vo.

This handsome volume is intended to contain a condensed statement, for the benefit of the general reader, of such positive gains to knowledge as have been added by the science of archæology to the authority of literary documents in the domains of Biblical and classical learning. It is made

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up of a series of essays by authors of acknowledged competency in their several departments, severely compressed within very moderate limits, so that the task of still further summarizing them presents considerable difficulties. In an introductory chapter the editor (Director of the British School of Archæology at Athens) limits the term archæology as meaning "the science of the treatment of the material remains of the human past." With more precision, this ought to be called the Lesser Archæology, a science clearly outlined and not unduly extensive. Its limitations are plain, but still it is of first-rate importance to the end of history; and its processes and methods have steadily grown more scientific and sound. Though it may never hope to equal the marvellous discoveries of the great finders of the past generation, its methods of search, at present in vogue, are better than theirs. The modern science of excavation finds with the spade without destroying by the spade; it treats no item of evidence as not worthy of observation and record; and, moreover, for the archæologist of the present day, the part played by photography in assisting eye, hand, and brain, cannot be overestimated.

The scope of the present volume is confined to the geographical area from which European culture has sprung, and it is divided into three parts. The first, comprising somewhat more than a third of the contents, is devoted to Hebrew Authority, and is entirely the work of Canon Driver, Regius Professor of Hebrew at Oxford; it includes two chapters, one entitled "The Pentateuch," the other, "The Kings and After." The second part, Classical Authority, forms considerably the largest portion of the volume, and is shared by four writers, each contributing a chapter: "Egypt and Assyria," by F. Ll. Griffith, the capable editor of the Archæological Report of the Egypt Exploration Fund; "Prehistoric Greece," by Mr. Hogarth, the general editor; "Historic Greece," by Ernest A. Gardner, Professor of Archæology in University College, London; and "The Roman World," by Mr. Haverfield, Tutor of Christ Church, Oxford. The third part is devoted to Christian authority; and is also by a single author, Rev. A. C. Headlam, Fellow of All Souls' College, Oxford. It is less than 100 pages long, and is divided into three chapters, "The Early Church," "Remains in Phrygia," and "The Catacombs at Rome."

The monuments contain no mention of Abraham or of Melchisedek, but they give interesting particulars about the four kings from the East, mentioned in Gen. xiv., who were previously mere names. Those chapters which deal with the history of Joseph, display a marked familiarity with Egypt, and many illustrations of their statements have been supplied by discoveries made in that country. One of the most curious of these is the almost exact parallel between the story of Joseph and Potiphar's wife and a popular romance in Egypt called "The Tale of the Two Brothers." No assistance has been furnished by the monuments in establishing the date of Joseph's sojourn in Egypt, but the discoveries of M. Naville, in 1884, at the modern Saft, have fixed the site of the land of Goshen; and at about the same time he also determined the situation of the store-cities, Pithom and Ramses, at Tel-el-Maskuta and Tanis respectively. No more can the date of the Exodus be precisely determined from the evidence of the monuments, but there are strong grounds for holding that Ramses II. (nineteenth dynasty) was the Pharaoh of the oppression, and his successor, Merenptah, the Pharaoh of the Exodus. Until 1896 no mention whatever of the Israelites had been found on the Egyptian monuments; but in that year Mr. Flinders-Petrie discovered a large stele at Thebes containing a notice of them. The nature of the occurrences to which it alludes cannot be confidently pronounced upon, but it must be inferred that "Israel, or a part of that people, was already in some part of Syria, and had been in hostile contact with Egypt," thus affording a substantial confirmation of the Biblical narrative.

A valuable light is shed by inscriptions upon the historical credibility of the Acts of the Apostles, by which we are enabled to test the writer's information and the genuineness of the large amount of local color to be found in the book. In chapter xvi., which contains an account of St. Paul's visit to Philippi, in Macedonia, a word is used *(meris)* to designate the "district" in Macedonia in which it was situated, which occurs nowhere else in that signification, so that its genuineness has been justly suspected. But among the Fayum documents a considerable number make use of just the same word to describe divisions of that region. So, also, the writer gives the courtesy title of "prætor," with his attendant "lictors," to the magistrates of the city, on account of its being a Roman colony, as is usual in inscriptions from Roman colonies. From Philippi, Paul went to Thessalonica, not a Roman colony but a free city of Greece, with its own constitution; in this case the magistrates are called in the Acts "politarchs," a name which does not occur in any other place in Greek literature. Yet an inscription on an arch in that city, demolished some years ago, states that it was erected when certain named persons were "politarchs of the city." In like manner the whole narrative of the disturbances in the theatre of Ephesus, and of the significance of the worship of Diana (Artemis) to the life and trade of the city, as told in the Acts, has been illustrated by the results of discoveries made on the site of that city by the authorities of the British Museum, and especially by the recently published inscriptions from that place. The language of some of these seems almost identical with that of the Acts.

For the later period of Egyptian history Herodotus's accuracy has been confirmed, so far as the names and succession of the kings of the Saite dynasty and of the Persian invaders are concerned, by the monuments both of Egypt and of Assyria; but his account of the character and actions of Cambyses is not substantiated by them. Upon the life of the New Kingdom from the Saite period on, but little light is thrown from the paintings in the tombs, which are mostly copied from those of earlier times; a few fragments of historical stelæ, however, have been found in the Delta, although the temples of that region have been utterly destroyed. It is impossible, therefore, to test Herodotus's statements in regard to the monuments erected by the Saite Kings; but his account of the Greek colony at Naukratis, its temples, and its commercial importance have been confirmed by the recent explorations of the Egypt Exploration Fund. Mr. Griffith comments upon Herodotus's strange lack of even superficial knowledge of the geography of the country. Some instances can be pointed out in which his observation of manners and customs is certainly correct, as in regard to the early cultivation of the Indian lotus as a vegetable, or as to a standard field measure of 100 cubits square. Others are unfounded, or a distortion of facts, as that beans were never eaten, or that the vine was not cultivated. Egyptian religion knows nothing of the three orders of deities, or of the doctrine of metempsychosis, as told by him; but the idea that the deceased was denied burial until he had been judged worthy of it, may easily be inferred from the 'Book of the Dead.'

On the remote history of the people of the Tigris and Euphrates valleys Herodotus is silent; nor does he ever clearly distinguish between the Assyrians and the Babylonians, calling them both Assyrians. The rise of the power of the Medes is recounted by Herodotus at considerable length—that, after having been subject to the Assyrians for 500 years, they finally contrived to throw off the yoke; but this does not agree with the evidence of the cuneiform texts; so the Greek accounts of Cyrus and the siege and destruction of Babylon by him are contradicted by inscriptions. The monuments of Darius are numerous, and the great Behistûn inscription recounts how he wrested the empire from the hands of the usurper, and quelled eight rebellions in the early years of his reign. This in the main is in confirmation of the account that Herodotus gives of those events, although the incidents related do not agree. The genealogy, however, of Xerxes, as given by Herodotus, is confirmed by the same inscription.

The Acropolis of Athens may be taken as a typical example of how much new and unexpected material can be gained by excavations upon a site already familiar, and bearing upon its surface most distinctive monuments. Systematic exploration, going down to the bedrock, has disclosed a mixture of architectural fragments, sculpture, vases, and other antiquities, placed there when the hill was levelled and lowered to its present shape and height, which must be the remains of buildings and works of art destroyed in the sack of the city by the Persians, 480 B. C. We have consequently a representative collection of accurately dated examples of attainment in the different arts in the times preceding. The foundations of the various buildings tell the tale of all the stages by which the fortress of a primitive settlement became the centre of religion and art. We have huge "Pelasgic" fortification walls of unhewn stone, following the contour of the hill, and provided with a postern-gate, as at Tiryns and Mycenæ, approached by a long flight of steps, and on the summit, as at those sites also, the remains of an early palace, doubtless "the well-built house of Erechtheus." On this favorite resort of Athena, where was her earliest shrine, we find the foundations of her original temple, destroyed by the Persians. It was built of a coarse limestone, covered with stucco, with painted ornaments and sculptured pediment, of which many fragments were found. We can now see how far outside the primitive fortification the walls built by Cimon, from the spoils of his victory over the Persians on the Eurymedon, were set, and can trace in them the old gateway that was superseded by the Propylæa of Pericles. Here, too, we find traces of early temples, never completed, which pre-

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ceded the existing Parthenon, as well as of constructions of the late Roman period.

It is only in exceptional instances that the accumulation of débris on a classic site can be traced to a single historical event. At Olympia and at Delphi numerous objects of all periods and of all kinds have been recovered; and from careful observation of the exact position in which they were found, it has been possible to fix their precise date. At Olympia, where only a few broken columns were to be seen emerging from a cultivated plain, we can now trace the sacred precinct with its temples and altars, its treasure-houses, the gymnasium where the athletes were trained, and the stadium where they ran. The great athletic festivals of Greece take on a new life before our eyes, and the Odes of Pindar gather a fresh meaning, as we stand amidst the very surroundings where many of them were first sung.

The site of Delphi presented to the French excavators many engineering problems, which have been successfully overcome. We can now follow the route of the old processions along the pavement of the Sacred Way, zigzagging up from terrace to terrace to the sacred enclosure and the temple itself. On either side are the Treasuries of the various cities of Greece, and we can see the bases of the statues or groups set up to commemorate some of the most striking events of her history. Much of the sculpture that once adorned these Treasuries was found lying around their walls, and will be for ever preserved in a museum to be erected on the spot, as was done at Olympia. High up on the steep slope above the sacred enclosure is the space levelled for the Pythian stadium, still showing the starting-place and the goal of the runners, and the tiers of seats for the spectators.

In nothing do Greek and Roman history diverge so much as in the extent to which they depend upon the authority of the written record and upon archæological evidence. Both rest upon both sources of knowledge; but Greek history is well provided with both aids, while for the Roman historian the task is different. For the prehistoric period he has abundant evidence, but for the times of the Republic there is little archæological evidence to check or supplement the narrative of the classic writers. The reverse is true of the Empire; the literary records are few and of small historical value, but the archæological evidence is extensive and extraordinary, and most of it has been recovered during the last fifty years. Of prehistoric times and the beginnings of Italy our knowledge has been gained in the last thirty years; and it reveals two distinct features. There was a steady drift of immigrant tribes, moving down from the North through the Alpine passes, bringing with them their civilization, their modes of building and of burial, of dress and of artwork; and an influx of men from the eastern Mediterranean, in fewer numbers and of differing races, with their own peculiar fashions. Of Northern invaders two stand out prominent—those called the early Italians and the Gauls. The former, coming some fourteen centuries before the Christian era in a succession of tribes, drove the original occupants out of the valley of the Po, crossed the Apennines, and spread all over Central Italy. One tribe took possession of Latium and founded Rome. When they first occupied the Po valley they dwelt in villages built on piles, of which the remains, called by the Italians *Terremare* (from the character of the black fertilizing soil composing them), have been most scientifically explored by Chierici, Strobel, and especially by Pigorini, the head of the prehistoric museum at Rome. The best-known example is that of Castellazo, near Parma. It consists of a little village of some thirty acres, quadrilateral in shape, surrounded by a solid earthen rampart and a moat 100 feet wide. Within, two streets cross at right angles, dividing the area nearly equally; with lanes parallel to the main streets. In the centre stood a small citadel with its own rampart and ditch. We are here at the beginning of the later cities of Italy, for the principles on which it was laid out are precisely similar. There stands, at the junction of the Anio with the Tiber, a modern fort on an isolated rock, where once was Antemnæ, destroyed, according to legend, by Roman jealousy very soon after the foundation of the city. Excavations on this site have revealed a little village within a wall of stone, its temple and senate-house, its water cisterns and square hut foundations. From this we may judge what its rival, the earliest Rome, on the Palatine rock was like. Similarly the growth and expansion of Rome by the joining together by walls of hill to hill is illustrated by discoveries at Narce (afterwards called Falerii), under Mount Soracte, some thirty miles north of Rome. At its beginning it resembles Antemnæ, but it continued to annex height after height, until at last it became a city on five hills, before its final overthrow by the Etruscans.

Besides the slow but steady uncovering of Pompeii, systematic explorations of other Roman sites in various regions have been carried on by the French at Carthage, Thamugadi, and Lambæsis, in Northern Africa; by the Austrians at Carmentum on the Danube; and by the English in Montenegro, and in London and many places in their own island, and stations on the line of the Wall of Hadrian. In this way much has been learned about the establishment of *coloniæ* and *municipia* in various countries of western Europe and northern Africa, the Danubian lands, and southern Gaul. The history of the frontier defences of the Empire has been carefully studied during the past few years. As a general rule, the interior was empty of troops; and the Roman army was stationed only in the frontier districts along the Rhine and the Danube, in north Britain, along the edge of the Sahara and on the Euphrates. The most important explorations that have been carried on by the Germans are those of the *Limes*, a great system of forts, walls, and earthworks (still existing in many places and called *Pfahlgraben* or by other names), which once defended the frontier for more than 300 miles, from Bonn on the Rhine to Regensburg on the Danube. This was begun before the time of Trajan, as a palisade of wood where there was no river defended by forts built at suitable spots. Successive rulers pushed it forward across the middle Rhine, and still further east till it reached completion in the third century. The exploration is subsidized by the Government, directed by a central committee, and carried out by duly qualified local antiquaries, each responsible for his own section; and the results have enlarged the bounds of knowledge.

We must here take leave of this work which we have but skimmed, and which, for its wide learning, sound judgment, and accurate information, fully abreast of the latest discovery, we can heartily commend to the careful study of all who take an interest in questions of history and antiquities, of literature and of art, both sacred and secular.

BANCROFT'S SEWARD.—I.

The Life of William H. Seward. By Frederic Bancroft. With portraits. In two volumes. Harper & Brothers. Post 8vo, pp. 553, 576.

In 1860 William H. Seward was the undisputed leader of the Republican party. He had able coadjutors, men of striking individuality, strong character, high courage, and determined will; but six years of parliamentary conflict and popular agitation had made his exposition of party principles and aims authoritative, had consolidated his influence and proved the wisdom of his practical generalship, until his leadership was scarcely less complete than Clay's had been in the old Whig party in his prime. Under a parliamentary government like that of England, he would have been the head of the Administration, as a matter of course, when his party attained a majority. Like Gladstone, his conduct of the struggle which carried his party to power, would have insured his place as head of the executive ministry. But our system is not the English, and, in the popular nomination of a President, Seward found, as Webster and Clay had found before him, that parliamentary leadership was a disqualification under prevalent theories of availability. Providence dealt kindly with us, and gave us in Lincoln a great man for the office. No more thanks to the standards of availability were due, however, than when in 1856 they gave us a Frémont.

As an excuse for smashing our idols, we are prone to exaggerate their imperfections if not to invent faults for them, and the unfriendly suggestions industriously circulated among the groups of a nominating convention or printed in newspapers by partisans of another candidate not infrequently get a place in history simply because they are a convenient way of accounting for a leader's defeat. It is the business of the impartial biographer to trace the authorship of such aspersions, and to rate very low those which have no better foundation than the hostility of heated political strife, inside or outside of a party. The effort made at the end of 1862 to drive Mr. Seward from Lincoln's Cabinet well illustrates the injustice which may be done in troubled times, when a party scapegoat is wanted, and when even able men, in their excitement, forget to demand the proof of insinuations whispered in their ears. Some of the best men in the Senate were misled into hostility to the Secretary, and went to the President to urge his dismissal. Mr. Lincoln's mingled sagacity and frankness soon made most of them see how wrong they were, and how baseless were their complaints. We can now see that had Mr. Seward left the Administration, an incalculable mischief would have been done the country, and some of the most patriotic men in Congress would have been the instruments in doing it.

Such considerations seem a fit introduction to a notice of Mr. Bancroft's book, because

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he deals with theories of motive and character to an extent quite unusual. He divides the statesman's career into two contrasted parts at the point of his defeat for the Presidential nomination in 1860. The preceding part is supposed to be dominated by a selfish ambition for place and power, the succeeding by abnegation of self and intense patriotic devotion to the cause of his country. In the first, the author not only makes a general attribution of unworthy purpose, but follows every specific act with the explanation in accordance with it, as if to run no risk that the reader should be misled by its apparent rectitude or merit. In our biographical reading, we do not recall an equal example of continuous guidance of the reader's judgment. In the second part the opening steps are somewhat uncertain, but, from the awakening thunder of the cannon at Fort Sumter, Seward's courage and energy, his inspiring hopefulness, his genius for diplomacy, his sagacious judgment, his untiring industry, his boundless capacity for work in any and every useful direction, his forgetfulness of everything but the overmastering purpose that the country should triumph, his abnegation of all thought of candidacies and of future career for himself, are all drawn with a distinctness of line and a fulness of illustration that are most telling. If a word or a phrase sometimes recalls the treatment of the earlier chapters, it is only as in the "Tannhäuser" overture where bars of the vice *motif* try to obtrude when the swelling march of the nobler theme is asserting its full power.

That we are not mistaking the author's conception of his own work is shown by a striking passage in the first volume, which quotes Seward's words in regard to J. Q. Adams at that great man's death. True to the method of the first part, to which reference has been made, the reader's sympathy with Seward's warmly expressed love and veneration for Adams, in whom he had "lost a patron, a guide, a counsellor, and a friend," is checked by bringing in his relations to Thurlow Weed:

> "He was not less eager to inherit the mantle of the one than to be the beneficiary of the schemes and power of the other. So, *until he laid aside his ambition for preferment many years later*, he was like Daudet's hero, who heard two voices:
>
> *'Tartarin-Quichotte, très exalte:*
> Couvre-toi de gloire, Tartarin!
> *Tartarin-Sancho, très calme:*
> Tartarin! Couvre-toi de flanelle!
>
> Seward always showed a preference for getting first the covering of *flanelle*, knowing that *gloire* fits best on the outside. Carlyle said of Voltaire: 'He loved truth, but chi fly of the triumphant sort.' Seward desired to be true to Adams's example, but he thought it necessary to keep Weed as a guide and ally in the struggle" (p. 201).

Here, the words which we have italicized indicate the development of the Life in two contrasted parts ruled by contrasted motives; and the method of dealing with the first by depreciating comparison, suggestion, and witty innuendo is shown in full bloom. The author does not usually marshal the opposing influences in so overwhelming proportion—Weed, Voltaire, Tartarin, three to one against Adams; but he is true to the method. As a literary plan, looked at as a scheme for a drama, it is a taking one and promises entertainment; but how about its truth to nature and to fact? We must look a little closer at Mr. Bancroft's sources and material.

In studying Mr. Seward's diplomacy as Secretary of State, Mr. Bancroft has gone to original authorities and made good use of the facilities at his command as a subordinate officer in the State Department. It would perhaps be safe to guess that the interest in the subject stimulated by his growing acquaintance with the unpublished records and correspondence suggested the writing of a new Life of Seward, in which the diplomatic history of the civil war might be treated more fully and with greater unity and better connection than had been done before. The Seward MSS. and the Bigelow MSS. were opened to him, and the key to many an interesting situation was thus given. Whatever the actual growth of the work, we have reason to congratulate ourselves that this part of the history of the great rebellion has been written with fulness and sympathetic comprehension of its great difficulties and its great triumphs, scarcely less interesting or less important than the victories of Grant and Sherman. Mr. Bancroft's second volume is a positive addition to our historical knowledge of its period, and a fine presentation of the incidents, the inner qualities, and the strategy of a notable diplomatic contest. His genuine admiration for Mr. Seward in it shines through every page. The last fifteen chapters of the book thus carry one along with the author in keen enjoyment. The theme is a grand one, the tone is high, the style is good, our patriotism is stimulated, and nothing jars upon the harmony unless it be a rare and faint echo of the harsher tone of the earlier part of the work.

In that earlier part, the materials are, of course, more familiar. Mr. F. W. Seward's Memoir and Letters, with Mr. Baker's edition of the Works, are necessarily the basis of all biography of the statesman. The facts of his life, his speeches, and his state papers cannot be much enlarged; they speak for themselves. The personal part was given by his son with a completeness that left little to be desired, and with a judgment and taste beyond criticism. As his father's intimate confidential assistant in the most important part of his career, Mr. Frederick Seward is also an independent authority of real weight. Little would seem to be left for a new biographer in the years before 1860 but to condense or select from this material and to throw side lights upon it by excursions into contemporaneous history. This abridgment and recasting Mr. Bancroft has done with skill, and has combined with the Life itself such extracts from speeches and papers as give a good idea of Seward's style, characteristics of thought, political philosophy, and methods in controversy and in leadership. The distinctive note, however, of this part of the Life is the constant reiteration of suggestions of selfish and unworthy purpose to which reference has already been made. They do not grow naturally out of the facts narrated. They could generally be deleted without marring the continuity of the story or leaving any trace of erasure. The suggestion is often the reverse of what the unassisted reader would draw from the circumstances. To one who yields himself to the author's guidance, it gives a sinister air to the conduct of a life. To one who has formed opinions on history and looks for himself at the evidences of motive, it begets a rebellion at being thus held in leading-strings—a rebellion which increases as he notices how often it is sheer innuendo or ironical praise.

In Seward's governorship, the "Hilderberg War" broke out, being a rebellion of tenants of the Van Rensselaer manor against the terms of "perpetual leases subject to the feudal tenure of the seventeenth century." Gov. Seward sent the militia to support the Sheriff, who was mobbed, and, when the disturbance was quelled, he recommended to the Legislature "liberal remuneration" to the militia who had shown "alacrity in obeying the call of the magistrate to sustain the civil authority." At the same time, while condemning the tenants' appeal to mob-law, he declared the "tenures oppressive, anti-republican, and degrading," and recommended statutory relief. Lest we should praise the chief magistrate for his union of statesmanship with executive energy, Mr. Bancroft adds: "If either the militia or the anti-renters failed to become supporters of Seward, they must have been hard to please" (p. 119).

Seward's defence of Freeman, a poor demented negro indicted for murder, was in the face of popular excitement that threatened an appeal to lynch law. Nothing could be more unpopular at the time than the advocacy of such a cause, though the man's idiocy was afterwards acknowledged. Mr. Bancroft carefully tempers his applause for Mr. Seward's "sense of duty and his fearlessness of temporary passions," by reminding us that he exhibited no less "his keen insight, which told him that there was an opportunity to do a brave, philanthropic act, which ultimately must redound to his advantage, both professionally and politically" (p. 179). Subjected to so keen an insight into motives, one humbly repeats the Scripture question, Who shall stand?

In the "midsummer madness" of the Know-Nothing movement of 1854, the crumbling of the old parties under the disintegrating influence of slavery had made a wild rush into a secret order, which captivated men's imagination by astonishing election results of which no breath of warning had been given. In the Northern States the society was largely composed of men who sympathized with the anti-slavery cause, and who were openly urged to join the order as the new party which would most surely realize their hopes. Chase in Ohio and Seward in New York were alike opposed to proscription of foreign-born citizens and to political action through secret societies, and both were leaders in the "Anti-Nebraska" uprising. Chase was a candidate for the Ohio governorship, Seward for the senatorship from New York. In both States the anti-slavery principle had more virile strength than the "Americanism." In Ohio the nominating convention was called as a non-partisan one, and Know-Nothings who were delegates to it voted for Chase, who was nominated. In New York, Know-Nothings elected to the Legislature voted for Seward, who was reëlected to the Senate. In both States the Democratic newspapers shouted, "Bargain and corruption," and, in Ohio, contributions to the pamphlet debate as to how it was done have been made even within the last year. As to Seward, Mr. Bancroft adopts the assertions of the Opposition, attributing the management to Mr. Weed, whose "peculiar means of persuasion were generally as effective as they were secret" (p. 376). As to Chase, he remarks: "In the West, Chase was high in

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popular favor. Ohio Republicans enthusiastically chose him as their candidate for the Governorship, and already there was talk of making him the party nominee for the Presidency in 1856" (p. 387). Is this comparative history?

If we were to go through the examples of similar treatment of subjects, the list would be nearly equal to the topics of this first volume. The criticism is not at all that the author takes a low view of Mr. Seward's political motives. It is that, instead of an induction of motive from the historical facts, there is a systematic attribution of motive contrary to the natural logic of the facts. The historical narrative shows Mr. Seward to have been a man of clean personal life, of strong convictions, persistent and frank in adhering to them, refusing to abandon the tenets he had advocated, however unpopular they might be. Secret political societies, proscription of foreign-born citizens, slavery, disunion, were the objects of his condemnation, and his hostility to them lasted till his death. The philosophical presentation of his views which was habitual with him, showed that they were not accepted upon impulse, but were thought out with care, weighing reasons on both sides, and reaching conclusions worthy to be called a system of political beliefs. He is entitled to the credit of sincerity, because of his adherence to his system in good report as well as in evil. Whoever denies this should be held to the duty of furnishing solid proofs, not suspicions and mere aspersions. It is, of course, true that, in the leadership of a good cause, the sin of using forbidden means may be committed; but the same production of evidence is here also demanded. The general historian may assume a public man's character to be known. The duty of the biographer is distinctly to develop it. We do not find that Mr. Bancroft does this. Let us see if it is done in some greater crises of Mr. Seward's career.

Sailing Around the World. By Capt. Joshua Slocum. The Century Co.

This is an account of one of the most remarkable and successful nautical enterprises ever attempted, whose claim to pre-eminence resides in the fact that it involved a cruise of 46,000 miles on all of the oceans, in a sloop thirty-six feet nine inches in length over all, and of nine tons net burden, sailed by one solitary man. This exploit was accomplished, not in the interests of trade or for the sake of gain, but seemingly from a spirit of adventure and of spontaneous love of the water. That Capt. Slocum was not inspired by sordid impulse was a source of ceaseless wonder at the various ports at which he touched—except at Samoa, the only place that he visited where he never heard allusion made to what "would or would not pay." Many successful conflicts have been waged with the sea in craft of small dimensions—in them explorers and shipwrecked mariners have made long and perilous voyages; but never before has a single man embarked with such calm deliberation in so diminutive a vessel to circumnavigate the globe, and carried the venture to a successful conclusion.

It is not to be expected that the average reader, unacquainted with nautical vicissitudes, will be able to gauge in all of its dimensions the extraordinary exploit of Capt. Slocum; but in those who have seen the ocean in all its moods from the decks of sailing craft, or who have passed all their days at the edge of the heaving sea, or who have sailed small boats in dangerous waters at all times and at all seasons, it will arouse sentiments of unqualified admiration and respect for him as a valiant and resourceful man. It is from this point of view that the author's simple and unpretentious narrative of his cruise must be judged. Absence of literary finish and florid word-painting sinks into insignificance compared with the overwhelming impression his story conveys of dominant courage and placid self-reliance.

The rig of a sloop is the most unsuited for navigating the open sea. It is heavy, cumbersome, and dangerous there, even when handled with a crew numerous and able. Yet it was in such a craft, alone and unaided, that Capt. Slocum sailed from Boston to Gibraltar, thence across the South Atlantic to Brazil and the Straits of Magellan, where he changed the rig into that of a yawl—an ideal one for cruising in small vessels. His skill as the skipper of a sloop was all the more remarkable inasmuch as his nautical training had been acquired in square-rigged craft. This emphasizes the extraordinary quality of his seamanship. As a navigator, he was no less surprising. Provided with a cheap tin clock in lieu of a chronometer, he was rarely at fault in his longitude. When he expected to make a port, the bowsprit of the *Spray* was pointed directly at its entrance, when it was sighted, even after a forty-day run at sea. Naval officers, with all their scientific training and elaborate navigating tools, cannot always attain to this accuracy.

The original of the *Spray* was a fishing boat, supposed to be a hundred years old. When it came into the possession of Capt. Slocum, it was hauled up in a pasture lot in process of decay. Without assistance he rebuilt the craft upon the original lines. That he did the work thoroughly the record of the voyage reveals. Moreover, the sail-plan was well balanced; for, with the helm lashed, he sailed long stretches without touching the wheel. When the *Spray* was altered into a yawl, it did still better, for on one occasion it sailed on one course for twenty-two days, without his being at the wheel for more than an hour and a half during the entire period.

On April 24, 1895, Captain Slocum sailed from Boston, stopping at various coastwise ports until he reached Yarmouth, Nova Scotia, whence, on the 2d of July, he took his final departure from the American Coast, bound for the Azores, his first port of call, where he arrived July 20th. On July 26, the day after leaving the Azores, occurred the most dramatic incident of the voyage. Some of his friends on shore had presented him with a quantity of plums and a native cheese. He ate freely of both. The amalgam was not a harmonious one, for it brought on a dreadful attack of stomachic cramps. Before the Captain was completely disabled, a blow came on. He should have hove to; instead, he double-reefed the mainsail and, with a full jib, put the *Spray* on her course, lashed the wheel, and went below to roll in agony of pain on the cabin floor. While delirious from the disorder, he imagined that he saw, through the companion-way a tall man at the helm, who doffed his hat and said to him, "I am one of Columbus's crew. I am the pilot of the *Pinta* come to aid you. Lie quiet, Señor Captain, and I will guide your ship to-night. You have a calentura; but you will be all right to-morrow." When the Captain recovered his full senses, it was broad day. The *Spray* still headed true, going like a race horse. The sloop had made ninety miles in the night through a rough sea with no one at the helm—except the supernatural visitor constructed out of equal parts of plums and white cheese.

It is unnecessary to follow further the itinerary of Captain Slocum. The record is there for all to read. The portion that will arouse the greatest interest among deep-water sailor-men is that which tells of the passage of the *Spray* through the Straits of Magellan, the most dangerous stretch of navigable water for sailing-craft known to the world. Its shores are littered with the wrecks of full-powered steamers that have succumbed to its treacherous shoals and currents; yet here was a man who, in a nine-ton sloop, single-handed, conquered all its dangers—furious "willywaws," squalls that sweep down from the encircling mountains, and threatened attacks of savages, averted only through fearless composure and ceaseless vigilance. After weeks consumed in the first passage through the Straits, when the Pacific Ocean was reached a furious gale drove him southward and thence eastward around Cape Horn. By skilful seamanship he regained the Straits and for a second time made the passage through them. One man without assistance to double Cape Horn in a nine-ton sloop or yawl! The feat is stupendous and unprecedented. The fame of Captain Slocum preceded him. Every lighthouse that he passed on foreign shores greeted him and the *Spray* with salutes by flag, or bell, or gun. With all the attention that was lavished upon him, his sense of humor was not diminished. No man ever took less seriously himself or his exploit. Although a native of Nova Scotia, he was a naturalized citizen of the United States, and always sailed in or commanded American ships. When the proposed Hall of Fame is constructed, a niche should be reserved for Captain Joshua Slocum as the representative of a type of American seaman that in the logic of events is passing out of existence.

Cuba and International Relations: An Historical Study in American Diplomacy. By James Morton Callahan, Ph.D. [Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science.] Baltimore, 1899. Pp. 503.

In one respect, at least, Mr. Callahan has produced a remarkable book. In a volume of 500 pages, professedly the result of a painstaking study of original sources, both printed and manuscript, there is not a single footnote in citation of any authority, nor the least indication of the sources from which any particular statement has been derived. A few items on a prefatory page refer in general terms to certain printed and manuscript collections from which the material has been drawn, but such entries as "private correspondence, memoirs and diaries of public men," "Government publications, Washington," and "historical and political treatises, *passim*," are not quite the sort of reference one is accustomed to see in works

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of historical scholarship. That Mr. Callahan has been industrious in gathering his matter is everywhere evident, but the fact that he has chosen to burn his bridges behind him makes it difficult for even the most expert student to follow him in his course.

Assuming, however, that his facts can all be properly vouched for—and considerable attention to a number of the more significant ones has disclosed no substantial inaccuracy—it may be said at once that the volume is a contribution of first-rate importance to a subject just now of especial interest. The political history of Cuba, primarily with reference to its bearings upon the history of America and the United States, is traced in detail from the earliest years, when Cuba was a centre of Spanish influence and control, down to the close of the Spanish-American war, which left the island without political attachment, and its inhabitants a people without a government or an allegiance. Notwithstanding a style almost excessively lively and entertaining, the author has preserved commendable impartiality, and treats the decline and fall of Spanish dominion in the New World with little trace of the cocksureness and flaunting of "manifest destiny" of which we see so much. On certain often-worked topics, such, *e. g.*, as the acquisition of Louisiana and Florida by the United States, the origin of the Monroe Doctrine, and the relations between this country and Cuba following the Cuban insurrection of 1868, the positively new information is not great. The account of the ten years' war, 1868-1878, and the mission of Gen. Daniel E. Sickles, seems to have been prepared with the assistance of Gen. Sickles himself. On other topics Mr. Callahan makes substantial additions to existing narratives. The policy of Spain towards the American colonies during the Revolution; the long story, in several instalments, of injuries to American commerce in Cuban waters; the negotiations of Polk, Pierce, and Buchanan for the purchase of Cuba, and the relations of both the United States and the Southern Confederacy to Spain and Cuba during the Civil War, are points at which the narrative is fuller than, if not substantively different from, any previous account.

The reading of Mr. Callahan's book serves to emphasize one striking characteristic of our historical relations to the Cuban question. Almost from the beginning, as he shows, there has been a clear feeling in some parts of the country, and in the minds of many public men, that the geographical situation of Cuba made it naturally a part of the United States, and that its command of the Gulf made its possession by any other Power more or less of a menace. At the same time, and notwithstanding the heated demands now and then made for forcible annexation, the predominant sentiment has always been that the island should not be incorporated with the United States save with the free consent of its inhabitants, as well as of Spain. The course of this Government since 1868, when systematic revolt in Cuba began, was in the main one of forbearance. That Cuba should ever have been brought into the anomalous condition in which it now is; that the United States should virtually have taken possession of it while declining to state whether it holds the island or not; that the Cubans themselves should have become subject to the military arm of a government to which as yet they owe no formal allegiance, but upon whose support they are absolutely dependent; and that the national independence for which they fought for a generation should seem less likely of realization after the overthrow of Spanish domination than before, is a situation for which the history of either Cuba or the United States affords little preparation. Mr. Callahan deserves high credit for the thoroughness with which he has done his work, even though his book is another proof of our slight regard for political consistency.

A Sanskrit-English Dictionary. By Sir Monier Monier-Williams. New edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1899.

It is almost thirty years since the first edition of this dictionary was published, and a new edition has long been desirable, not only because the first was out of print, but because that first edition needed a very careful revision. The present volume, it may be said at once, is a great improvement on the old. The editor (or author, if the compiler of a dictionary may be called author) estimates that 60,000 words have been added, but the most important addition has been the care expended by the collaborating editors, whose names also appear upon the title-page, Prof. Leumann of Strassburg and Prof. Cappeller of Jena. Under the direction of such competent hands, the old Sanskrit Dictionary, full of careless blunders, has become a well-made compendium of the only great Sanskrit Lexicon, the St. Petersburg 'Sanskrit-Wörterbuch' of Böhtlingk and Roth. The young German scholars who have aided Prof. Williams make no pretence of writing a new dictionary, and indeed even Sir Monier-Williams himself can claim as new little save a questionable rearrangement of old material. As the authors of the St. Petersburg dictionary once remarked (in sorrow, not in pride), *Alles kommt nach uns*, and the best that can be said of this Sanskrit Dictionary is that it is a very convenient one-volume Englished condensation of the old seven-volume Sanskrit-German Lexicon.

Like all condensations, it is deficient, and its few references impair its worth to a very advanced scholar. Its vocabulary is extensive, but one looks into it in vain for such characteristic words as *kâryâtman*, *tridhâtman*, and *vikâritâ*. The Vedic thesaurus is fairly well represented, though perfection is not attained. But, for ordinary purposes, this dictionary is complete enough to be valuable to students, even when they are quite advanced. On the whole, it is a reliable and useful work.

In the Petersburg, all forms of a verb are arranged under the root, so that one may see at a glance the various adverbial (prepositional) combinations. This excellent disposition of verbal matter is the only scientific one in Sanskrit, as the adverbs have not yet become prepositions in the early language. Even in the later usage, it is more correct as well as more practical to range the verbs according to their prepositions under one head. Sir Monier-Williams in his first edition and after much mental labor (as he tells us) abandoned this plan, and still ranges the root under the prefix, in the same blind way in which Greek dictionaries are made; so that one has to hunt through the whole volume (and keep handy a list of prepositions) in order to study the meaning of a verb in its entirety—that is, as modified by its various combinable elements as well as in its naked unqualified condition. This much-vaunted "improvement" is the most serious practical defect in the work. It is also to be regretted that the editors did not banish the quite useless space-filling participial forms, which are entered as separate words, as if in a Greek lexicon one should make a special place for παρηγγελμένος. One wonders whether these are included in the "new words"; but certainly other words now omitted could better have stood in their places.

Sir Monier-Williams's death, in April last, occurred after he had revised the last proofs, and he had the satisfaction of seeing the work practically completed, though his hope of seeing it published was not granted. It is probable that this dictionary will remain as his most lasting contribution to Sanskrit scholarship, for, though it does not take the place of the German original, there are many English students of Sanskrit who need just such a work. Like other books of its class, it will doubtless reappear from generation to generation in improved editions, till some impatient fifth or sixth reviser ousts Sir Monier-Williams's name from the title-page and puts his own there, though with due acknowledgment in the preface to the fount of his learning, even as Sir Monier-Williams himself has acknowledged his own indebtedness in a preface.

Alexander the Great. By Benjamin Ide Wheeler. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

Three years ago Mr. David Hogarth published a brilliant biographical essay on Alexander, and, in one hundred and fifty pages, gave the general reader a masterly sketch of the great Macedonian's life and aims. In the volume before us, the President of the University of California set himself a very different task. His 500 pages form a history of the period as well as of the man. Nor is he content with this; four of the earlier chapters (pp. 81-148) hark back to the political organizations and ideas of fifth-century Greece, in the days before the little northern state of Macedonia became a factor in Greek politics, and wrested from the majority of Greeks a recognition of its claim to be considered no longer barbarian but Hellenic among the Hellenes. Such an analysis of the Greek state and the relation of the individual thereto, no doubt, adds value to Mr. Wheeler's work as a contribution to Greek history. But, for the general reader, we lament the long break in the story of Alexander's youth, and question whether it would not have been better to make these four chapters strictly introductory to the general narrative.

The fascinating story of Alexander's career, if only by taking us into the realm of the mysterious and the unexplored, throws the doings of Hannibal and Napoleon in the shade. Unfortunately, we have no contemporary record; but Arrian's simple and unembellished "Anabasis," written in the second century after Christ, is founded on the narratives of two of Alexander's actual associates, Ptolemy and Aristobulus, and its freedom from romance and rhetoric seems to render it a safe guide. Plutarch, who was about fifty years older than Arrian, wrote his famous 'Life' with a keen sense of the dramatic interest of such a personality. For the rest, we are depen-

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dent on minor historians, who dressed out their facts with an eye on the contemporary reader of the historical novel. But even when stripped of rhetoric, Alexander's adventures read like fiction. Here was a youth who combined the open and resentful temperament of an Achilles with the resourcefulness of a Dumas hero, the beauty of an Adonis with the physique of an Olympic athlete. He was austerely ascetic from sheer pride, and his intellectual self-assertion was such that he could not endure that other men should learn of Aristotle the doctrines that he himself had mastered. At twenty, fretting at the narrow limits of a country that was always too parochial to sympathize with his ambitions, he set out on that conquering march from which he was never to return home to Macedonia.

Alexander was a true cosmopolite. Any country that he had conquered became, so to speak, his native land, and it was partly to this genius for adapting himself to all men and all ways of life that he owed his success. For thirteen years, with ever-widening aims, and consequent isolation from his stiff-necked Macedonians, he made a triumphant circuit of the Persian world. His invasions of Afghanistan and of India are, to modern readers, the most interesting features of his march. Wherever he went, he grafted western civilization on Orientalism, never losing sight of his ultimate object, that merging of east and west which he symbolized by his wedding with the Bactrian princess Roxana. When Alexander died at Babylon at the age of thirty-two, he was on the eve of an expedition into Arabia which was to round off his empire and fill up the gaps that had been left in earlier expeditions. His task was unfinished, and he had no true successor. But he had planted seventy cities of the Greek type on Oriental soil, and had for ever broken down the barriers between the two main types of civilization.

Mr. Wheeler tells the story of Alexander's aims and achievements with considerable detail and admirable clearness. His style is always pleasing, and if his work falls short, to some extent, of the breadth and brilliance of Mr. Hogarth's essay, it is, on the other hand, far better suited to the needs of the student. The illustrations, as is usual in this series, are appropriate, and well reproduced; the book also is well furnished with maps and an index.

Essays on Subjects Connected with the Reformation in England. By S. R. Maitland. New York: John Lane.

The memory of S. R. Maitland is not being permitted to perish. A few years ago, Mr. Frederick Stokes reëdited his 'Dark Ages,' and the Rev. A. W. Hutton now gives us his 'Essays,' as above. It is just fifty years since Maitland himself collected the articles which he had contributed to the *British Magazine*, and brought them out in book form. Despite the research which has attended the vigorous controversies of the meantime, these papers have by no means lost their value. Every one admits the breadth and soundness of Maitland's historical knowledge. The force of his thrusts, too, is undeniable; and even opponents, where they are not surly, must admire the keenness of his wit. Nevertheless, we are a little surprised that this reprint should have come forward under the care of an Anglican clergyman. Maitland exasperated the Low Church party by his attack on the Puritans and Puritan influence, while he lost favor with the High Church party by assailing Keble's tract 'On the Mysticism Attributed to the Early Fathers of the Church.' The mere fact that he gained no preferment speaks volumes, for few bishops equalled him in point of learning and ability. Had he found favor with either school, High or Low, he would at least have been made a dean.

Mr. Hutton, however, is not prompted so much by the spirit of ecclesiastical warfare as by the love of historical truth. He sees in Maitland one who was shocked by the sight of narrow prejudice, especially when combined with crass ignorance. Every reader of the 'Dark Ages' will remember Maitland's vindication of St. Eligius, and his fierce onslaught upon the idea that the mediæval church did not know and use the Bible. He considered that a great many similar fallacies existed in the popular mind with regard to the English Reformation. One of them was that the Puritans were altogether heroic and admirable. Accordingly, Maitland hastened to show that they scuttled away over seas when persecution began, and, by quoting from Traheron and similar authors, he proved that their language was very questionable. He wrote in this strain, not because he held a brief for one side, but because he could not without impatience hear either ill-grounded encomium or ill-grounded denunciation. Mr. Hutton sees in him one who would always have changed the object of his attack according to the popularity of this or that historical aberration. Were Maitland living now, Mr. Hutton assumes, his love of historical truth would lead him to be shocked by the fashionable conception of what occurred in England between 1531-1560.

"It is a grave matter that some thousands of religious teachers throughout the country, men whose position demands that their utterances should be treated with respect by those to whom they speak, should, in the interests of a quite modern conception of what the Church of England really is, be now insisting on a minimizing account of what happened at the Reformation, such as no historian would accept as even nearly accurate."

We also think that Maitland, were he living now, would say sharp words on this subject.

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